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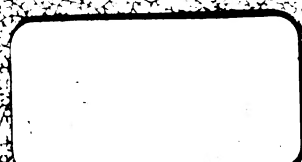
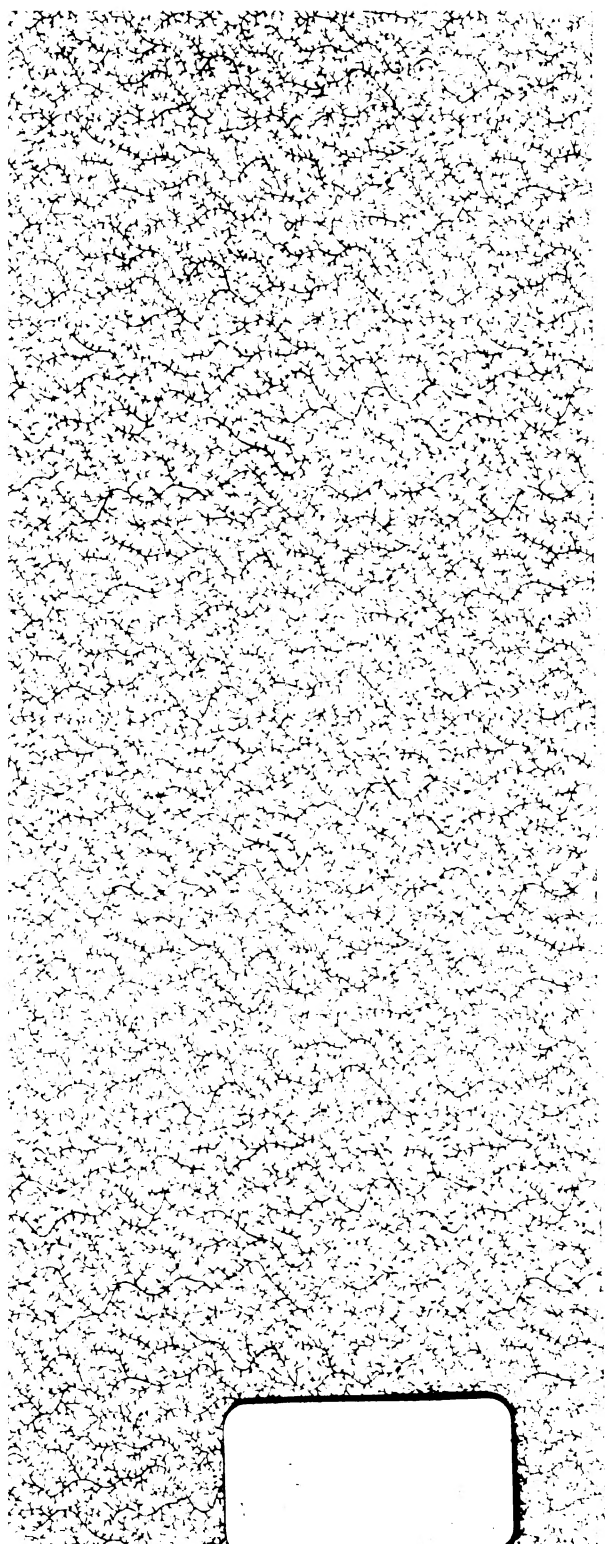
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THE
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ENLARGED:

From MAY to AUGUST, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XI

With an APPENDIX.

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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A				
ADVICE on the Study of the Law, <i>America</i> and France, on the Relations of, <i>Anatomical</i> Examinations, <i>Appeal</i> on the Folly of War, <i>Artist</i> , <i>Art</i> , Transactions of the Society for, Vols. XXV—XXVII. <i>concluded</i> , 69 <i>Attempt</i> to estimate the Increase of the Poor,	Page 103 326 104 110 133 436	<i>Baillif's</i> Letter to Mr. Giddy, <i>Bank</i> , Speech at, —, See <i>Bu. Ion</i> . —, new Chartered, Thoughts on, <i>Bank-restriction-law</i> , on the Repeal of, <i>Bath</i> , Wonders of a Week at, <i>Bede</i> , Dr., Memoirs of, <i>Bell's</i> Flowers of German Literature, <i>Bibliotheca Legum</i> , <i>Black's</i> Life of Torquato Tasso, <i>Boase's</i> Remarks on Currency, <i>Bonaparte</i> , Confessions of, <i>Bostock's</i> Remarks on the New Pharmacopœia,	100 99 220 429 332 128 107 104 1 323 218 179	
	B			
	<i>Babylon</i> , and other Poems, <i>Beggars's</i> Parthenaid, a Poem,	444 461	<i>Bradstreet's</i> Sabine Farm, a Poem, <i>Brown's</i> Philemon, a Poem, <i>Buchanan's</i> Journey from Madras, A 2	314 165 256 Bullion,

<i>Bullion</i> , Bank-notes, &c., Tracts relative to, 99—101, 221, 319—324, 429—430.	
<i>Bullion-Debate</i> , a Poem,	446
<i>Borden's</i> Translation of Estrada's Spanish Constitution,	219
———'s Translation of Estrada's History of the Revolution in Spain,	427
<i>Burnett's</i> Selection of Milton's Prose Works,	247
<i>Bywater's</i> Essay on Electricity,	97

C

<i>Cady</i> , Narrative of an Expedition to,	45
<i>Carey's</i> English Prosody,	433
———'s Key to Dittos,	ib.
<i>Carmina Selecta</i> ,	444
<i>Carr's</i> (Sir John) Travels in Spain,	358
<i>Catholic</i> Religion, on the Corruptions of,	208
<i>Catholics</i> , on the Emancipation of,	206
<i>Cattelan's</i> Travels in Germany, &c.	527
<i>Cattley's</i> Speech at the Bank,	99
<i>Chardin's</i> Travels, new Edition,	327
<i>Christine</i> , a Poem,	249
<i>Church</i> , Established, See <i>Remarks</i> ,	
———, Roman, See <i>Defence</i> .	
<i>Clark's</i> <i>Bibliotheca Legum</i> ,	104
<i>Clark's</i> Disquisition of the Mineral Kingdom,	222
<i>Commerce</i> as it was,	432
———, a Poem,	445
<i>Confessions</i> of Bonaparte,	238
<i>Contra-Tinea Capitis contagiosa</i> ,	216
———'s Correspondence with the Reviewers,	111, 112, 224, 336, 448
<i>Canton-Colonies</i> , Facts relative to,	440
<i>Crabb's</i> German Extracts,	107
<i>Crowley</i> on the Emancipation of Catholics,	206
<i>Crown</i> , Influence of, Inquiry into,	437
<i>Curses</i> of Wakefield, in French,	436
<i>Currency</i> , Principles of,	99
———, Remarks on,	101
———, Observations on the State of,	321
———, Remarks on the Depreciation of,	323
<i>Currencies</i> , Abstract, Defence of,	324
<i>Curse</i> of Keshama,	113
<i>Cyclopaedia</i> , New, continued,	183

D

<i>Defence</i> , New, of the Roman Church,	109
--	-----

<i>Defence</i> of Mr. Lancaster,	447
<i>Deffand</i> , Mad. du, her Letters to Mr. Walpole,	28
<i>Description</i> of Egypt,	542
<i>Dictionary</i> of Gardening,	90
<i>Discursive</i> Considerations on St. Luke,	204
<i>Dinasse</i> , Popular Treatise on,	398

E

<i>Egypt</i> , Description of,	542
<i>Electricity</i> , Essay on,	97
<i>Elgin</i> , Earl of, Memorandum on his Pursuits in Greece,	267
<i>Elton's</i> Tales of Romance,	173
<i>Essays</i> on the Art of War,	278
<i>Estrada</i> on a Constitution for the Spanish Nation,	219
——— on the Revolution in Spain,	427

F

<i>Faber's</i> Sketches of the State of France,	307, 385
<i>Facts</i> , in Answer to the Bullion-Report,	101
——— on the Cotton Colonies,	440
<i>Familiar</i> Letters,	434
<i>Farmers</i> , Address to,	96
<i>Few</i> Facts, in Answer to the Bullion-Report,	401
<i>Fitzgerald's</i> Poetical Pastimes,	208
<i>Flowers</i> of German Literature,	107
<i>France</i> and America, on the Relations of,	326
———, Sketches of the State of,	307,
———, South of, Travels in,	385, 493

G

<i>Gardening</i> , Dictionary of,	90
<i>Gdy-Lussac</i> and <i>Thénard</i> ———Physical-Chemical Researches,	504
<i>Gell</i> on the Geography of Ithaca,	371
———'s Itinerary of Greece,	110
<i>Genius</i> of the Thames, a Poem,	210
<i>Georgian's</i> Commentary on Raptures,	214
<i>Geography</i> , See <i>Payne</i> .	
<i>German</i> Extracts,	107
——— Literature, Flowers of,	ib.
<i>Germany</i> , Travels in,	527
<i>Giddy</i> ,	

CONTENTS.

<i>Giddy, Mr., Letters to,</i>	200.
<i>Gossamer, Latin,</i>	22.
<i>Grattan, Mr., Letter to,</i>	435
<i>Greece, Itinerary of,</i>	371

H

<i>Hallaren on the Number of Insane,</i>	214.
<i>Harrison's Address to the Lincolnshire Medical Society,</i>	162
<i>Hawke's (Miss) Babylon, and other Poems,</i>	442
<i>Heap, Treatise on,</i>	142
<i>Hill's Sequel to the Poetical Mopitar,</i>	434
<i>Hints for Reform in the Criminal Law,</i>	102.
<i>Hoare's Artist,</i>	123
<i>——'s Examination of Sir John Sinclair,</i>	319
<i>Holford's (Miss) Poems,</i>	244.
<i>Huskisson, Mr., Observations on his Arguments,</i>	430

I and J

<i>Jacob's Travels in Spain,</i>	12.
<i>Jeffry, Robert, Narrative of his Life,</i>	223.
<i>Impress considered,</i>	217
<i>India, South of, Historical Sketches of,</i>	225
<i>Insane Persons, Inquiry into the Number of,</i>	214
<i>Jeb, New Translation of,</i>	142
<i>Jedrell—<i>Carmina Selecta</i>,</i>	444
<i>Johnson's (Mary) Original Sonnets,</i>	329.
<i>Jobaston's Narrative of an Expedition to Candy,</i>	45
<i>Jolyer's Edition of Linné,</i>	468
<i>Jones's Latin Grammar,</i>	82
<i>Joseph—Paris in the 19th Century,</i>	484
<i>Journey from Madras,</i>	256
<i>Irish Vale, a Novel,</i>	435.
<i>Isoperimetrical Problems, Treatise on,</i>	39
<i>Ithaca, Geography and Antiquities of,</i>	371

K

<i>Knaptrick's Account of Nepal,</i>	337
<i>Koster, Mr., Letter to,</i>	221

L

<i>Laisné's Spanish Grammar,</i>	106
<i>——'s Portuguese Ditto,</i>	107
<i>Lamarck's Zoological Philosophy,</i>	473
<i>Lambert's Salmagundi,</i>	418
<i>Lawson, Mr., Defence of,</i>	447
<i>Langlet's Edition of Chardin's Travels,</i>	517
<i>Latin Grammar,</i>	82
<i>Law of Nisi Prius, Abridgment of,</i>	109
<i>——, Criminal, Hints for Reform in,</i>	16.
<i>——, Advice on the Study of,</i>	103
<i>Letter to Mr. Koster,</i>	221
<i>—— to Mr. Grattan,</i>	415
<i>Lettres of M^d. du Deffand,</i>	28
<i>——, Familiar,</i>	434
<i>Lewer's Young Sea Officer's Sheet Anchor,</i>	221
<i>Lincolnshire Medical Society, Address to,</i>	162
<i>Linné's Sexual System, New Edition of,</i>	468
<i>Lucas's Poems,</i>	332
<i>Luke, Saint, Discursory Considerations on his Gospel,</i>	204

M

<i>McDonald's Dictionary of Gardening,</i>	90
<i>Madras, Journey from,</i>	256
<i>Manuel Epistolaire,</i>	434
<i>Marryat on a new Chartered Bank,</i>	220
<i>Matthew, Saint, Chap. xxiv. examined,</i>	206
<i>Memorandum on Lord Elgin's Pursuits in Greece,</i>	267
<i>Mendham's Adventures of Ulysses,</i>	212
<i>Merriman on Retroversion of the Womb,</i>	104
<i>Military Policy and Institutions of Great Britain, Essays on,</i>	402
<i>Millican's Travels in the South of France,</i>	493.
<i>Milton's Prose Works, Selection from,</i>	247
<i>Mineral Kingdom, Distribution of,</i>	222
<i>Milford's (Miss) Christina, a Poem,</i>	249
<i>Money, Law and Principle of,</i>	322
<i>——, Theory of,</i>	430
<i>Mommsen, Reflections on,</i>	157
<i>Moore</i>	

More on the Corruptions of the Catholic Religion, 208

Proseby, See Carey.
Prussia, King of, his Strategical Instructions, 424

N

Narrative of the Life of Robert Jeffery,

213
Neill's Tour in the Orkneys, 154
Nepaul, Account of the Kingdom of, 377

Nichols's Edition of Abp. Nicolson's Letters, 195

Nicolson, Abp., his Correspondence, 195

Nisbet on the xxivth of Matthew, 206

Nisi Prius, Law of, Abridgment of, 102

Nun, an Amatory Poem, 209

O

Observations on the Arguments of Mr. Huskisson, 430

Orkneys, Tour in, 154

P

Paris in the 19th Century, 484

Parliaments, frequent, Right to, 328

Perthencid, a Poem, 461

Pasley on Military Policy and Institutions, 402

Payne's Introduction to Geography, second Edition, 433

Peacock's Genius of the Thames, 210

Pharmacopæia, New, Remarks on the Nomenclature of, 179

Pharmacopæia Officialis Britannicæ, 212

Philemon, a Poem, 165

Physico-Chemical Researches, 504

Physiology of Vegetable Life, Sketches of, 108

Pitt's Bullion-Debate, a Poem, 446

Poems, See Southey, Brown, Fitzgerald, Peacock, Mitford, Holford, Scott, Johnson, Lucas, Bradstreet, Hawke, Godrell.

Poetical Monitor, Sequel to, 434

—— Pastimes, 208

Poor, Increase of, See Attempt.

Portuguese Grammar, 107

Practice on the Bank-restriction-law, 479

R

Raibby on the Law and Principle of Money, 322

Ranby on the Influence of the Crown, 437

Randolph's Edition of Miss Smith's Book of Job, 142

Rees's (Dr.) New Cyclopædia, continued, 183

——'s (Mr.) Sermon at Brecknock, 447

Reflections on the Moniteur, 157

Religion, Principles of, plain Statement of, 365

Remarks on Depreciation of Currency, 101

—— on the Established Church, 110

Replication to all Theorists on Bullion, 320

Right of the People to frequent Parliaments, 328

Robertson on Disease in general, 398

Roman Church, New Defence of, 109

Rose-Bud and Sprig of Myrtle, a Story, 449

Rosse, Earl of, on the Currency, 321

Ruptures, Commentary on the Treatment of, 214

S

Sabine Farm, a Poem, 334

Salmagundi, or Whim-Whams, 418

Sarrazin's Answer to the Report against him, 238

——'s Confessions of Bonaparte, ib.

Scott's Vision of Don Roderick, 293

Sea Officer's Sheet Anchor, 221

Self-Control, a Novel, 434

Selwyn's Abridgment of the Law of Nisi Prius, 102

Sinclair, Sir John, See Hoare.

Sketches of the Physiology of Vegetable Life, 108

Smith, Miss, her Translation of the Book of Job, 142

——'s (Capt.) Translation of the King of Prussia's Strategical Instructions, 424

Squetti,

CONTENTS.

vii

<i>Sonnets</i> , Original,	329
<i>Sonshy's</i> Curse of Kehama,	55, 113
<i>Spain</i> , Travels in, by Mr. Jacob,	18
—, New Constitution for,	219
—, Travels in, by Sir John Carr,	355
—, History of the Revolution in,	427
<i>Spanish Grammar</i> ,	107
<i>Sprig of Myrtle</i> and <i>Rose-Bud</i> , a Story,	449
<i>Statistical Account of Tonquin</i> , &c.	513
<i>Stock's Memoirs of Dr. Beddoes</i> ,	128
<i>Stocker's Pharmacopœia Officinalis Britannica</i> ,	212
<i>Stratigical Instructions</i> ,	424
<i>Sweden</i> , Travels in,	527

T

<i>Tales of Romance</i> ,	173
<i>Tasso</i> , Torquato, Life of,	1
<i>Thames</i> , Genius of, a Poem,	220
<i>Thénard</i> , See <i>Guy-Lussac</i> .	
<i>Theory of Money</i> ,	430
<i>Tibia</i> , Affection of, described,	105
<i>Tige de Myrte & Bouton de Rose</i> ,	449
<i>Tinea capitis</i> , Treatise on,	216
<i>Tonquin</i> , &c. Statistical Account of,	513
<i>Transactions of the Society for Arts</i> , &c.	
Vol. XXV — XXVII. concluded,	69
<i>Travels</i> , See <i>Jacob</i> , <i>Neill</i> , <i>Buchanan</i> , <i>Carr</i> , <i>Millin</i> , <i>Cattelan</i> , <i>Chardin</i> .	
<i>Trigonometry</i> , Treatise on,	36
<i>Trotter</i> on the Principles of Currency,	99

V and U

<i>Vegetables</i> , See <i>Sketches</i> .	
<i>Vision of Don Roderick</i> ,	293
<i>Visions of Albion</i> ,	439
<i>Ulysses</i> , Adventures of,	212
<i>Voulaire—le Card de Wakefield</i> ,	436

W

<i>Walpole</i> , Mr. Horace, Letters to, from Mad. du Deffand,	22
<i>Walsh</i> on the Relations of France and America,	326
<i>War</i> , Appeal on the Folly of,	110
—, Art of, Essays on,	278
<i>Watson</i> on the Principles of Religion,	365
<i>Whately</i> on an Affection of the Tibia,	105
<i>Wilki's Sketches of the South of India</i> ,	225
<i>Wilson's</i> (Glocester) Defence of Abstract Currencies,	324
—'s (C. H.) Irish Valet,	435
<i>Wisner's Treatise on Hemp</i> ,	152
<i>Womb</i> , Retroversion of, Dissertation on,	104
<i>Wonders of a Week at Bath</i> ,	332
<i>Wood's Zoography</i> ,	290
<i>Woodhouse's Treatise on Trigonometry</i> ,	36
— on Isoperimetrical Problems,	39
<i>Worthington's Address to Farmers</i> ,	96

Z.

<i>Zoography</i> , or Beauties of Nature,	290
<i>Zoological Philosophy</i> ,	473

ERRATA

ERRATA in Volume LXV.

- Page 39. l. 18. put a comma after 'though.'
127. l. 31. for *Ernovalis*, read *Ernovalis*.
323. l. 6. from bott. for 'suspensions,' r. *suspension*.
325. l. 27. for 'ones,' with a comma, read *one*; with a semicolon.
360. l. 2. for '1371,' read 1348.
399. l. 5. put a comma after 'moralities.'
401. l. 30. dele 'diseases' after 'some.'
444. l. 26. dele the comma after '*prurit*.'
- l. 37. for '*Rollet*,' r. *Pollet*.
445. l. 27. dele the comma after '*plus*.'

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For M A Y, 1811.

ART. I. [*The*] *Life of Torquato Tasso*, with an historical and critical Account of his Writings. By John Black. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1810.

IN this country, at present, the greatest buyers of books are the purchasers of *costly* publications; and of them a numerous class are the mothers of polished families. In their domestic circles, while some of the young ladies are at work, one reads aloud; and the taste of the fair party is mostly directed by the governess, who in course is purity personified. No trash from the common circulating library may intrude; nor would any such book appear elegant enough to be left about on one of the nests of tables, and shewn to the visitor as "what *we* are reading." In order to meet this peculiar demand, Travels, adorned with sketches from nature,—Poems superbly printed, with antiquarian notes,—Introductions to the innocent and cleanly sciences,—Essays, moral, literary, religious, and critical,—and Lives of divines and poets,—are regularly compiled; and as this branch of literature is both to the bookseller and to the author one of the most profitable, it is encroaching rapidly on profounder forms of exertion. "Can you recommend to me any new lady's-book?" is the first question asked in the drawing-room of a gentleman who is supposed to be a reader; and writers, in order to be named on such occasions, are learning to sacrifice to *Effeminacy*.

Whatever is to be read aloud must be written diffusely: the thought that is uttered cannot be re-studied by the audience, and can only be impressed by repetition. So also, whatever is to be read interruptedly must have little necessary cohesion; one person may be absent to-day from the lecture-room, and another to-morrow, yet nothing will be lost or missed by the accidental inattention, if a volume of detached lucubrations is luckily the object of perusal. Whatever, again, is to be read to young ladies, and before *Mama*, must carefully avoid original, bold, free, or even recondite opinions, lest inquiries should be excited which might in any way embarrass. To be dif-

fuse, incoherent, and *quotidian*, are therefore now positive excellences in writing ; and thus a praise-worthy innocence, a fluent purity, a bland insignificance, an unexceptionable insipidity, is gently overspreading the works which issue from our presses, till the tone of English mind will be gradually lowered, to that of its most amiable patronesses.

Two quarto volumes, containing the biography of a single poet, cannot but be addressed to this genteel, elegant, and femininely patient public. Male readers will not generally afford the leisure for such immoderate detail, because they have the business of life to attend as well as its luxuries to enjoy ; — they ought indeed to be familiar with a bard so classical as Tasso, and to remember the leading features of his age, fortunes, and character : but they may not waste investigation idly, and sweep and brush and whiff away the dust of time out of every careless footstep of their hero. A pyramid cannot be piled over every mummy : not colossal dimensions, but perfection of sculpture, should distinguish the marble tombs of those who graced without incumbering the earth ; and above all, let it be a poet who plants laurels around a poet's mausoleum.

The life of Tasso, however, is on every account an attractive and well-chosen topic. He is among the first of modern, and, with the exception of Homer, of all poets. Virgil is greatly his inferior for completeness of fable, for variety and consistency in character, for curiosity of incident, for versatility of delineation, and for that magnetic interest which makes the reader cling to his book, and hide it in his bosom against the next opportunity of continuation. Even as to style, the exquisite neatness and cold majesty of Virgil are less delightful than the more picturesque and glowing copiousness of Tasso. A competition even with Homer might be maintained, on the ground that the beautiful in art is of more difficult attainment than the sublime. To execute the Jupiter of Phidias required not perhaps so much accomplishment, as to carve *the Rule of Polycletus*.

As a man, also, Tasso is a curious phenomenon, an unusual specimen of human nature, a study for the psychologist. His works exhibit a refinement and a discretion which his conduct outraged. While he fascinatingly painted the sweetest forms of being, and worshipped in imagination the fair and the good, he would sink into bitternesses of temper and suspicion, or burst out in ebullitions of hatred and vagary ; as if his actions grew out of an inverted state of his inclinations, and were stimulated by a retrograde vibration of his ideas. Rousseau had a cast of mind remarkably like that of Tasso ; displaying the same ardent sensibility and genius, full of affection for all the objects

objects of his internal contemplation, and illuminating into heroic beauty every scene of nature, every theory of philosophy, every dramatic personification, which arose in his fancy ; yet always turning from his ideal Eden into the real world, with contempt, with indignation, with ingratitude, with distrust, and with a practical moral indifference, (to use no harsher term,) as if, because we cannot realize the excellences of angels, we ought not to attempt the virtues of men.

The first life of Tasso was published in 1621, and was derived from papers furnished by the Marquis Giambattista Manso, who had hospitably sheltered the poet in his later years : but his notices did not reach back to the earlier days, which are incorrectly narrated. Exactly a century later, was born the Abbe Pier-Antonio Serrassi, who published criticisms on this biography, who rectified with much research its errors, and who in 1785 completed in 500 quarto pages a new and accurately detailed life of the poet. To these two sources, and to the letters of Tasso which have been edited with his other works, Mr. Black is indebted for the chief of the materials which compose the volumes now on our table. Subsidiary contributions have been levied on Tiraboschi, Muratori, and some other antiquaries and annalists, who had occasion to treat of Tasso and his patrons ; and some irrelevant interpolations also occur. A critical catalogue of these authorities is given in the preface, which announces (p. xxx.) the remarkable purpose of presenting ' such a delineation of the peculiarities of thought and feeling, by which the intellectual disorganization of the poet was accompanied, as may supply materials for the beneficent labours of the mental physician, and contribute to the rising interest for the insane.'

Chapter the first gives an account of Bernardo Tasso, the father, who married in 1539, and settled near Naples, at Sorrento, where his son Torquato was born in 1544. Bernardo enjoyed from Sanseverino, Prince of Salerno, a pension of 300 crowns, and expected with his wife a liberal fortune, but was eventually deprived of the one and disappointed of the other, and obliged to resume the military service.

In Chap. II. Bernardo Tasso rejoins the army, and sends his son Torquato in 1554 to school, first under the Jesuits, at Naples, and then (under whom ?) at Rome. The conduct of his education in the latter city is described ; and his early proficiency is noted.

Chap. III. relates the removal of Torquato, in his thirteenth year, to Pesaro ; in order to be educated with his cousin ; with whom he visits Venice, and enters at the university of Padua. Torquato, while at Rome, had assisted his

father in writing out for the press the *Amadigi*, a poem in one hundred cantos, which comprehend more than seven thousand stanzas of eight lines, composed mostly on horseback, amid the din of arms, in camp, or in the barrack.

These three chapters, which occupy about seventy pages, if unnecessarily prolix, are at least connected with the business of the history : but, at the beginning of the fourth chapter, the writer bursts on us with a dissertation 'on the feudal system and its moral effects,' which has already ushered in Robertson's Charles v., and has been transferred into books without number. This is one of those corner-dishes of the author's intellectual banquet, which the French would term a *hors d'œuvre*. —The succeeding disquisition, on the origin of chivalry and romance, is less superfluous ; because a taste for these pursuits had prepared the way for the reputation of Ariosto, which, more than a father's example, aroused the emulation of Torquato.

Chapter v. introduces the young man studying (or rather neglecting) the law at Padua :

" He pens a stanza when he should engross."

The extensive epic poem, intitled *Rinaldo*, was undertaken by him at college, and was finished in the short space of ten months. The modern author of "*Joan of Arc*" once boasted that he had run a race with the press : but it may be doubted whether he much outstripped the celerity of composition which was realized by the juvenile Tasso. In 1562, the *Rinaldo* was printed, with a degree of success which induced its author to abandon the profession of the law, and to throw himself on the patronage of the great. He dedicated this work to the Cardinal of Este, and obtained for his father a secretaryship, which lasted but one year ; and Bernardo finally embraced for his maintenance an ecclesiastical life. The Italian Princes, though men of cultivated minds, and mostly well disposed towards literature, were in general poor, incumbered with heavy military establishments and all the servitors of pomp, and were rarely able to endow genius otherwise than with church preferments. Hence the frequent metamorphosis of eminent Italians into ecclesiastics, whether officers, musicians, painters, barristers, architects, or poets. Hence, too, the exclusive cultivation in Italy of the effeminate studies ; to the systematic neglect of all the branches of philosophy which, by exercising practical intellect, might unfit the student for conformity, or disturb the rich repose of the clergy.

The sixth chapter supplies some account of the family of Este. Here we could have pardoned a greater degree of detail. The history of the Medici may have obtained a more critical attention,

attention, but it is not more connected with the progress of literature and art, nor more fruitful in personal merit, than the annals of this house. Both in the patronage of Ariosto, who was the model of Tasso's emulation, and in direct influence over the drift of his own fortunes, the family of Este were essentially connected with this biography; and Muratori had accumulated multifarious materials, which it would have been an agreeable and an useful task to condense.

Chapter VII. introduces the fatal Leonora, from attachment to whom Tasso is supposed to have incurred his affecting melancholy*. An extract here will throw light on the character both of the mistress and of the poet:

'After the departure of the Duchess of Urbino, Tasso, whose attention was now undivided, paid his court to Leonora, her sister, with greater assiduity. This lady had been all her life averse to pomp and shew, and lived in a very retired and simple manner. Her principal delight was literature, and the conversation of literary men; and as Tasso was distinguished above all others in talents, was very handsome, and, besides, extremely courteous and agreeable in his manners, it was no wonder that she received him in a favourable manner. "But whoever," says Serassi, "dares to affirm, that Madam Leonora had a weakness towards Torquato, wrongs, in a very high degree, the virtue of that sage and most pious princess. Such was the idea of her purity in Ferrara, that it was attributed principally to the efficacy of her prayers, that the city was not overwhelmed by the Po, and totally destroyed by that earthquake which shook it for several months, to the incredible terror of every one."

'I have already mentioned, that the ecclesiastics of the family of Este generally held some rich benefices in France, together with those they had in Italy. From a very early period indeed, the house of Ferrara had been attached to that of France, and the subsisting union had been increased by intermarriages. The Cardinal Lewis, in addition to the archbishopric of Auch, which had been resigned to him by the Cardinal Ippolito his uncle, held in that country several rich abbeys, which he was now desirous to visit. Probably too, he wished, by his dignity and talents, to lend some aid to the Catholic religion, which was at that time struggling hard for victory. Among the gentlemen of his train, he resolved to take Torquato, partly on account of his society, and partly perhaps because he knew it would be agreeable to his cousin Charles IX. who, as he was fond of poetry, and himself a versifier, would be glad to see one of the greatest poets of Italy. Tasso was extremely happy at this resolution, not only as the journey would afford him a wider view of life and manners, but, as he was occupied with the composition of his *Jerusalem*, it was natural for him to wish to see a kingdom, of which his Hero, Godfrey, was a native.

'Prior to the departure of our bard, he left the following instrument in the hands of Hercules Rondinelli, a gentleman of Ferrara,

* Goëthe has forcibly dramatized in German the history of this romantic passion.

and one of his most intimate friends. It is extremely curious, as affording a melancholy picture of the finances, and I fear of the imprudence of Torquato, who imitated, and, as in other points, greatly excelled his father in negligence of pecuniary affairs.

' Memorial left by Tasso

on

his departure to France.

" Since life is frail, and it may please Almighty God to dispose of me in this my journey to France, it is requested of Sig. Hercules Rondinelli, that he will in this case undertake the management of the following concerns.

" And first, with regard to my compositions, it is my wish, that all my own love sonnets, and madrigals, should be collected, and published ; but with regard to those, whether amorous or otherwise, which I have written for any friend, my request is, that they should all be buried with myself, save this one only, *Or che l'aura mia dolce altrove spira*. I wish the publication of the oration spoken in Ferrara at the opening of the academy ; of the four books on Heroic Poetry ; of the six last cantos of the *Godfrey* ; and those stanzas of the two first which shall seem least imperfect. All these compositions, however, are to be submitted to the review and consideration of Sig. Scipio Gonzaga ; of Sig. Domenico Veniero ; and of Sig. Battista Guarini ; who, I persuade myself, will not refuse this trouble, when they consider my friendship and observance towards them.

" Let them be informed too, that it was my intention that they should cut and hew without mercy, whatever should appear to them either rotten or superfluous. As to additions or changes, however, let them proceed more cautiously, since, after all, the poem would remain imperfect. With regard to my other compositions, if there are any which to the aforesaid Sig. Rondinelli and the other gentlemen shall seem not unworthy of publication, let them be disposed of according to their will.

" As to my property, I wish that what part of it I have pledged to Abram — for twenty-five livres (lire ;) and seven pieces of arras, which are likewise in pledge to Sig. Ascanio for thirteen scudi ; that these, and whatever I have in this house, should be sold ; and that of the residue, the following epitaph should be inscribed on a monument to my father, whose body is in S. Polo. And should an impediment take place in any of these matters, I entreat Sig. Hercules to have recourse to the favour of the most excellent Madam Leonora, whose liberality I confide in, for my sake.

" I Torquato Tasso have written this, Ferrara 1570.

" BERNARDO TAXO MV SAR. OCIO ET PRINCIPVM.
NEGOTIIS SVMMA INGENII VBERTATE ATQVE.
EXCELLENTIA PARI FORTVNAE VARIETATE
AC INCONSTANTIA RELICTIS VTRIVSQUE
INDVSTRIAE MONVMENTIS CLARISSIMO
TORQVATVS FILIVS POSVIT.
VIXIT AN. SEPTVAGINTA ET SEX, OBI. AN. MD-
LXIX. DIE IV. SEPTEMB."

Soon

Soon after his return from France, Tasso wrote the *Aminta*, a pastoral comedy, which was acted at Ferrara and at Pesaro; and which was imitated as well as admired. He was always in the habit of reading to literary circles, and of lending among his friends the finished portions of the *Jerusalem Delivered*. He willingly corrected at the suggestion of others, sent a copy of his poem to Rome for revision by the critics, exhibited a deference to public taste which is of rare example, and is perhaps of all poets the one who has least indulged his idiosyncrasy.

Chapter VIII. opens with another of Mr. Black's common-places, in some remarks on the infelicity of genius: preparatory, however, to an account of the hypochondriac inquietude of Tasso, which was daily acquiring a character more and more alarming, and which appears to have been retarded principally by his literary occupations. An elegant historical illustration of an obscure passage in the *Jerusalem* occurs in the note at p. 192.; and the following account of a Latin poem, which in some degree suggested the fable to Tasso, deserves quotation:

'The friend whom Torquato principally consulted was Scipio Gonzaga, who associated to his critical labours some of the most distinguished literati at that time in Rome. Of these, the principal, during the first revision, were Peter Angelio da Barga, and Flaminio de Nobili. Barga had, in his youth, resided some time at Constantinople, had been professor of rhetoric and of moral philosophy at Pisa; and, besides a profound skill in the ancient languages, was, (as appears chiefly from his poem on hunting, entitled *Cynegeticon*,) an excellent Latin poet. He had begun, in 1560, a Latin poem, with the title of *Syrias*, on the subject of the conquest of Jerusalem, two books of which were published at Paris in 1582, dedicated to Henry III., six others at Rome in 1585, and the whole twelve at Florence, 1591. This work, (of which I have seen only the first six books,) appears to be written purely; but it is a mere metrical gazette, without any of those interesting adventures, those flowery descriptions, those magical embellishments in the poem of Tasso. Barga commences his poem, as the critics say, *ab ovo*, and at the end of the sixth book, Godfrey is only beginning his march from the Propontia. It is wonderful that the perusal of the *Jerusalem* did not discourage the author with his *Syrias*; but bountiful nature has given to many of her children a satisfaction with themselves and their productions, which richly compensates the want of the most transcendent genius. Barga, too, was rewarded for his poems with two thousand florins of gold, and many honours, while the destined recompence of Tasso was scurrility and an hospital.'

It is probable, however, that this was not the primary source of Tasso's plot: but that, while in France, he had met with a metrical romance, which in Labbe's *Bibliotheca*, vol. ii. p. 296, is thus described: "*Gregorius, cognomento Bechada, de Castro de*

Turribus (Latour), *professione miles, subtilissimi ingenii vir, aliquantulum imbutus literis, horum gesta praliorum* (the siege and capture of Jerusalem by Godfrey,) *materna, ut ita dixerim, lingua, rhythmo vulgari, ut populus pleniter intelligeret, ingeni volumen decenter composuit.*" Of this vernacular romance, we know not where to seek extracts: but it would become the future editor of the *Jerusalem Delivered* to inquire for it in the public libraries of Paris, and to shew what influence it can have had on the immortal celebrater of Godfrey.

Mr. Black as regularly opens his chapters, as Ariosto introduces his cantos, with a moral common-place. In chap. ix. his preliminary discourse examines, and condemns, the practice of some authors who consult their friends respecting their compositions. Tasso's eventual success, however, does not corroborate this judgment; and Mr. Black's remarks would have been more aptly placed in a life of Johnson, Gibbon, or Cowper, who were declared enemies to consultation. — Many hostile animadversions of the critics are discussed; and among others they are stated to have complained concerning the episode of Olindo and Sofronia, *che la soluzione fosse per macchina*. This phrase is erroneously translated by Mr. Black (p. 214.) *that it had a mechanical solution*, which English expression does not excite the same idea. The Greek tragedies were frequently terminated by a descending god, whose interference unexpectedly fixed the catastrophe; and hence the proverb *θεος απο μηχανης, deus ex machina*, to describe an unexpected and decisive interposition. These solutions of a dramatic plot, which, instead of growing out of the action itself, were accomplished *by a machine*, — by some one who had no proper business with the event, — were justly blamed by the antient critics; and Horace has limited the use of the *solution by machinery* to occasions worthy of divine interference, in the well known lines,

“ *Nec Deus intersit nisi dignus vindice nodus
Inciderit.*”

Now the episode of Olindo and Sofronia has in fact this vicious sort of solution; the lucky arrival of Chlorinda answering the purpose of a descending divinity.

In the tenth chapter, Tasso acquires the situation of historiographer to the family of Este. In the eleventh, he submits to a second severe revisal of his poem. He was especially teased by one Antoniano, a pious conceited man, who read poetry through the coloured spectacles of faith, and who wished the laws of taste to be regulated by the precepts of Christianity: who blamed, as of immoral tendency, the cohabitation of Ri-
nlado

naldo and Armida; and who wished every Christian hero to be described as an immaculate disciple of St. Paul. He censured, as too pagan in its imagery, the following passage; in which, after having described Erminia as clothing herself with armour to pursue her beloved Tancred, the poet adds:

"Gode Amor ch'e presente, e tra se ride,
Come all' bor già, ch'avvolse in gonnà Alcide."

These lines have been beautifully imitated in the *Emilius* of Rousseau; when Sophia visits her lover in his carpenter's shop, and takes up the plane, the author exclaims: "*J'ai cru voir l'Amour dans l'air battre des ailes, pousser des cris pleins d'allégresse, et s'écrier: Hercule est vengé.*"

In the twelfth chapter, the hypochondriasis of Tasso becomes a decided insanity; and he writes letters to the holy-office, where he erroneously supposes himself to have been denounced for possessing prohibited books, and for advancing free sentiments:—a fact which shews that the most impressive agitations of his soul really consisted in the conflict between what he owed on the one side to religion, and on the other to veracity. It appears, therefore, that those writers are in error, who make the cause of Tasso's madness to have been *love*; or perhaps they only meant to say that *continence*, which always vivifies the ideas, and which was consequently recommended to poets by the physicians of antiquity, had at length illumined the interior scenery of his brain to that pitch which produces illusion, which regards phantasms as facts, and which gives an erroneous direction to the voluntary actions.

To confound interior reality with exterior reality, and to mistake for perceptions of sense the representations of fancy, is the definition of madness. It does not come on all at once. The mind must indulge itself in fits of absence, in habits of inattention to the information of the senses, and must have much accustomed itself to derive long intervals of gratification from retiring out of the world into its own privacy, before so complete a delusion can be accomplished, as to mistake the play of imagination for the exhibition of nature. This mistake, however, is greatly favoured by any thing that enfeebles the senses, as old age; or by whatever enlivens the ideas, and illumines into day-light radiance the internal apparitions. All strong excitements bring on a short madness; anger, opium, love, and wine: they produce a transient splendor in the images within, which suffices to employ the mind on them alone. Tasso, as Mr. Black observes, was not a *supplied voluptuary*. Men, while in the hyperspermatic state, are very subject to extravagance, to mental hallucination, and

to

to hypochondriasis : but the trains of thought, which are stimulated into excessive action by this intoxicating cause, are not necessarily meretricious ideas, as might be expected, but are frequently those ideas which, in the given individual, have been associated with his most violent paroxysms of feeling, or with his most habitual exertions of contemplation. What it is that strong passions and strong drugs possess, in common, to affect alike our thinking nature, may not be exactly known : but it seems to consist in the power of causing a more profuse secretion of some fine fluid, which may be called the latent light of the brain. In proportion as this abounds less or more, our ideas are obscure, are distinct, or are splendid. The essential character of men of genius seems to be that they habitually secrete this fluid more abundantly than ordinary persons ; and expended it must be, in the illumination of larger landscapes of imagery, or in the irradiation of more striking objects, than those which suffice to the vulgar fancy. During the high state of intellectual excitement which genius always covets, the imagination will alternately spring, like that of Tasso, from the gardens of Armida to the dungeons of the Inquisition. It is never contented with trivial objects. That patience, which can find intervals of amusement in common scenes, and can abide the calm *ennui* of every-day conversation, is not a character of active vigorous mind. It rather marks a slow secretion of the internal flame, — the torch, as it were, with which the mind runs about through all the cells and chambers of the brain, and enlightens at will the pictures that have been stored up by memory.

Enthusiasm is the reverse of imbecility. The insanity of Tasso ought not for a moment to be confounded with those forms of idiocy which are marked by a loss of memory, partial oblivion, and paralysis apparently of whole limbs of the brain, so that given trains of thought cannot be recalled at pleasure into voluntary action. Tasso manifested no deficiency of the exciting power, but an excess. His soul boiled over. He had so much to excite his attention within, that he could not spare the leisure, nor the effort, to perceive the world without. Living in an universe of his own creation, and deriving from the very neglect of his body an increased ascendancy of his mind, had he been occupied in metaphysical philosophy, he would most naturally have tended to the inference that mind is the maker of all things, is omnipotent over matter, able to create and to destroy, independent of body for its subsistence and duration, and only incommoded by the temporary connection. To persons of more soul than their neighbours, antiquity, in this respect kinder than ourselves, attributed a
nature

nature partaking of the divine ; and overlooked the frailties of a body, undervalued perhaps by the possessor, as but an insignificant part of external nature, and of which the instinctive propensities might have a sanative operation on its sublimer companion.

To return to Mr. Black. — An appendix, *à la Roscoe*, completes Volume I. The translation, at p. 361., of the first chorus in the *Aminta*, is so beautiful as to merit entire transcription :

‘ Oh happy age of gold !

Not that the stream did flow
With milk, and honey still’d from every bough :
Not that the serpent roll’d
Innoxious, while the mold,
Untouch’d by plough, did every fruit bestow :
Not that no tempest cold
Did rage, nor lightnings glow,
And heaven laugh’d above, and earth below :
Nor yet the peaceful pine,
His mountain did resign,
To bear mid waves, to other worlds the foe.

‘ But only for that name,

That idle name of air,
That Idol of deceit, that empty sound,
That *Honour*, which became
Parent of every care,
And so torments our nature without bound,
Was not yet vainly found ;
Nor pour’d the gall of art
Amid the sweet delight,
Which crown’d each day, and night,
Nor gave his hard laws to the free-born heart ;
But nature rul’d, and nature did indite
One single law — “ What pleases, that is right.”

‘ Then amid springs, and flow’rs,

In sweet delightful sort,
Sat lovers without tortures, without wrongs ;
And nymphs, and swains, in throngs
Blended, in sweet disport,
With whispers, kisses, and with kisses, songs :
Then love prevail’d alone,
And scorn was yet unknown ;
The naked virgin then,
Untutor’d to give pain,
Or coldly treasure what might render blest,
Bared to the sobbing gale,
Her roses without veil,
Nor hid the apples of her heaving breast :
And oft in silver lake, or dancing stream,
The lovers sported ; nor of ill did dream.

- ‘Thou first, oh child of Pride!
 Each fountain of delight,
 Didst shut (relentless!) from the amorous thirst;
 Thou taught'st fair eyes to hide
 The glory of their light;
 Refrain'd from men, and on themselves reverst;
 Thou in a net didst first
 The golden tresses bind,
 Which floated in the wind,
 And sweet and native wantonness restrain'd,
 The artless whisper chain'd,
 And bad'st the tongue betray the heart no more;
 Oh Honour, it is thou!
 That mad'st each gesture feign'd,
 And that be stealth, which was a gift before.
- ‘Honour! 'tis thee that brings
 On human hearts their woes:
 But oh, fierce lord of Nature, and of Love!
 Tyrant of mighty kings!
 Why trouble our repose,
 Or leave the palace to torment the grove?
 Go, and from us remove,
 Nor break the humble rest
 Of us, who poor, yet but for thee, were blest:
 Go! — with thy Gothic sway
 The haughty sleep infect,
 Go! and let us the ancient rites obey:
 Let's love — this life of ours
 Can make no truce with time that all devours;
 Let's love — the Sun renews his course,
 With fresh resistless force;
 But we — ah! we, shall set in endless night,
 Nor spurn again the waves that quench'd our light.’

In this chorus lurks an Epicurean philosophy, the expression of which appears to have cost Tasso many pangs of soul, and much shew of penitence. Are those higher minds of every age, which imagine the fairest heavens, destined not to expect to inhabit them?

The Second Volume, and thirteenth chapter, open with the flight of Tasso from Ferrara,—a rash and ungrateful flight. To visit his sister in the habit of a shepherd, or, in other words, to undertake a pedestrian excursion to Sorrento, because he could not afford a more convenient equipage, was in the order of reason, of affection, and of duty: but to assign, as the cause of this roving, the fear of assassination, and the unkindness of his patron, was the wild exaggeration of a distempered fancy. The princes of the house of Este put on his conduct a charitable construction; and when the change of scene had restored the *impressability* (may we call it?) of his senses, the Marquis

Philip

Philip of Este welcomed him at Turin, and negotiated his return to Ferrara. — In the fourteenth chapter, this return is narrated. Tasso was now become personally negligent, an intemperate wine-bibber, and squalid. His patron was engaged in marrying a young wife, not yet accustomed to any of the poet's excentricities; and his reception was delayed, possibly with the view of preparing it becomingly: but Tasso took fire at the supposed slight, and redemanded with inconsistent warmth his place and his manuscripts. The pension being an implied equivalent for the dedication of his writings, he ought to have asked for the one only. If he withdrew the honour, he should have relinquished the salary; if he accepted the salary, he should have left in trust his patent of immortality. The manner was unruly in which Tasso behaved; and Alphonso, being provoked, sent him to a public lunatic hospital. This step was not generous; and though perhaps no private asylums for the insane were established at Ferrara, the feelings of Tasso ought not thus to have been outraged.

In chapter xv. the treatment of Tasso at the hospital of St. Anne is described as harsh. A humane philosophy had not yet visited and purified the benevolent institutions of Christian charity: but that Tasso was treated at all worse than his fellow sufferers in the same prison, or than his case appeared to the physician to require, is not probable.

Leonora of Este died in the year 1581, at the age of forty-four; and with her Tasso lost a skilful protectress. Alphonso seems originally to have patronized in Tasso rather the favourite of his accomplished sisters than his own; and as they had ceased to take their former interest in him, now that he was no longer (to employ an anglicism) a *drawing-room man*, Alphonso substituted the stateliness of the prince for the condescension of the acquaintance.

The sixteenth chapter relates that Tasso was freely visited in the hospital by many illustrious persons; that he was suffered to walk abroad with no other keeper than the prior's nephew; and that the complaints addressed by him to various persons assign such contradictory and romantic pretences for his confinement, that they cannot but want foundation. The conduct of Alphonso towards Tasso being thus open to scrutiny, it no doubt accorded with the sense of the age; and, if cold, it was at least gentlemanly. The descriptions of his disorder given in his own letters display great eloquence, and a perfection in the organs of idealization which enabled them to impose unreal sounds, as well as sights, on the poet, as exterior phenomena.

The pedantic and ill-natured controversy of the Academy della Crusca with Tasso, concerning the *Jerusalem Delivered*, is detailed in the seventeenth chapter. Yet there are still some critics (see Denina's *Vicende della Letteratura*, p. 100.) who repeat the censure of the Academicians. Criticism is more perishable than poetry. The inferences of Aristotle, from observations on the Greek drama, have mostly given way to enlarged experience: but Homer and Sophocles are still as great as they were in Aristotle's estimation. It is not worth while for the ivy of criticism to aim at climbing round plants which it can stifle; and to attempt to strangle the giants of the wood is an effort as vain as it is inglorious.

Chapter XVIII. gives Tasso's account of a *folletto*, or sprite, which he pretends molested him. We think that more sport of fancy than serious credulity appears in the narration sent to his friend Cataneo;—it is a specimen of legendary writing, in which ordinary incidents have received a marvellous colouring:

‘Of this sprite, (says Mr. Black,) as well as of the condition of Torquato, we have the following curious account, in a long letter to his friend Cataneo.

“To-day, which is the last but one of the year, the brother of the Reverend Licino brought me your two letters, but one of them disappeared as soon as I had read it, and I believe that the Folletto has carried it off, because it was that in which he was spoken of. This is one of those wonders which I have frequently seen in the hospital. Hence I am certain that they are the operations of some magician, of which indeed, I have many proofs, but especially from a loaf taken visibly from before my eyes, an hour before sun-set, and a plate of fruit, which vanished one day when I was visited by that Polish youth, who deserves such admiration. The same thing has happened with other provisions, at a time, too, when nobody entered my prison. I might mention a pair of gloves, letters, books taken from locked chests, and found in the morning on the floor. Some others, indeed, I have not found, nor do I know what has become of them; but as to those which go a missing when I am absent, these may have been taken from me by men, who I verily believe have the keys of all my trunks. Thus you see that I cannot defend any thing from my enemies, nor from the devil, except my will, with which I shall never consent to learn any thing from him, or from his followers, or indeed to have any familiarity with himself, or his magicians. It is observed by Ficino, that though such may move the phantasy, yet, without the intellect, they have no authority nor force; because that depends immediately upon God. The same thing may be collected from many other philosophers, both Platonists and Peripatetics.—But perhaps it will appear to some that I am contradicting myself, since, in my dialogue of *The Messenger*, I represent myself as conversing with a spirit; a thing which I would never have done, even had it been in my power. That dialogue was composed by me many years

years ago, in obedience to a prince ; and it was thought no harm to treat the subject in a poetical manner. Since that time, however, my enemies have seemed desirous to make a jest of me, and, by rendering me an example of infelicity, have occasioned that to become in some sort real, which was once fictitious. That, at the period I am speaking of, I was not subject to any misery of this sort, may be learned from a strict examination of those gentlemen in whose houses I lodged. My proofs, however, must rather be drawn from reason, than testimony ; though such testimonies would not be wanting, were it not that truth is oppressed by my enemies, who are many, powerful, and implacable ; and I wish not to please them, except by means suited to a Christian. But God knows that I was never either a magician nor a Lutheran ; and that I never read heretical books, nor those which treat of necromancy, or any prohibited art. Nor was I ever pleased with the conversation of Hugonots, nor did I praise their doctrines ; but, on the contrary, have always blamed them by my words and writings. Neither had I ever an opinion contrary to the holy catholic church, though I will not deny that I have sometimes lent too ready an ear to the reasonings of philosophers ; not, however, in such a guise as to forbear to humble my intellect before divines, or to be more desirous of contradiction than of instruction. But now my infelicity has confirmed my faith ; and, amidst all my misfortunes, I have this one consolation, that I am free from doubts, though I have many desires. And, if ever the fear of death has constrained me to injure myself or truth, such a terror has now no influence, for I love not life, except attended with those things, which might be granted me by a gracious prince ; by a prince whose desire it would be to annul the memory of the false, and let the truth remain ; not for the purpose of blaming others, but for his own, and my satisfaction. Meanwhile I am unhappy, nor will I conceal my misery, in order that you may remedy it with all your force, with all your diligence, and with all your faith. Know then, that, in addition to the wonders of the Folletto, which I may reserve for our correspondence at some future period, I have many nocturnal alarms. For, even when awake, I have seemed to behold small flames in the air, and sometimes my eyes sparkle in such a manner, that I dread the loss of sight, and I have visibly seen sparks issue from them. I have seen also, in the middle of the tent-bed, shades of rats, which, by natural reason, could not be there : I have heard frightful noises ; and often in my ears are the sounds of hissing, tingling, ringing of bells, and sounds like that of a clock. Often there is a beating for an hour ; and sometimes, in my sleep, it seems as if a horse threw himself upon me, and I have afterwards found myself languid and fatigued. I have dreaded the falling-sickness, apoplexy, and blindness ; I have had headaches, but not excessive ; pains, but not very violent, of the intestines, the side, the thighs, and legs : I have been weakened by vomiting, dysentery, and fever. Amidst so many terrors and pains, there appeared to me, in the air, the image of the Glorious Virgin, with her Son in her arms, sphered in a circle of coloured vapours, so that I ought by no means to despair of her grace. And though this might easily be a phantasy, because I am frenetic, disturbed by various phantasms, and
full

full of infinite melancholy ; nevertheless, by the grace of God, I can sometimes *cobibere assensum*, (withhold my assent,) which, as Cicero remarks, being the operation of a sound mind, I am inclined to believe it was a miracle of the Virgin. But, if I am not deceived, the source of my frenzy is to be attributed to some confections which I eat three years ago ; since from that period I date this new infirmity, which joined itself to the first, produced by a similar cause, but which was neither so long nor so difficult to cure. Indeed, if my infirmity be not altogether incurable, it at least has much resemblance to those which are never cured." Tasso proceeds in this melancholy letter to observe, that the nature of his distemper was such, that it could only be owing to witchcraft ; and expresses his anxious desire to be removed from a place where so much power over him was permitted to enchanters. The letter concludes with much reason and eloquence ; and the poet informs his friend, that he intended, the very evening on which this was written, to compose a sonnet ; a proof of that mysterious alienation of mind on one subject, while on every other it remains unfaded and entire.'

Here a miraculous turn is given to the vanishing of fruit, which a Polish youth had eaten ; to the displacement of books, which Tasso himself had left lying about ; to the loss of apparel, which attendants had stolen ; and to interior apparitions of various kinds, which attest the singular perfection of his imaginative faculty. These romantic and humorous exaggerations ought not to have been mistaken for insanity ; since it rather announces a recovered command of the movements of thought, thus to scatter interest over travels about his room,—over the wanderings of a prisoner.

In the nineteenth chapter, Tasso quits Ferrara with the Prince of Mantua, (or rather with his nephew Sersale,) his deliverer. The philanthropy of many eminent gentlemen of Italy appears to have been habitually alive to the condition of the poet ; and when intervals sufficiently lucid arrived to render confinement unnecessary, they were ready to welcome and to amuse his recovered liberty : yet in pecuniary liberality they were deficient.

Chap. xx. relates Tasso's visit to Rome, in the expectation, seemingly, of some donative from the Pope : but in this idea he was disappointed ; and after a pilgrimage to Loretto he went to Naples, and resided in the pleasant monastery of mount Olivet. Here Manso, Marquis of Villa, (as already mentioned,) visited the bard, and induced him to accept for a month an asylum in his house at Bisaccia. The cordial kindness of Manso, who, by entering into the feelings of Tasso, alleviated his pains of mind and doubled his pleasures, deserves recollection. The power of moral medicine over a diseased mind was anticipated by this nobleman's instinctive humanity ; and his affect-

affectionate hospitality, and patient versatility of expedient, contrived variously to amuse and agreeably to detain the poet : who, in company with his host, could enjoy once more the refreshing scenes of his childhood. After some stay with his sister, he returned to Rome.

The twenty-first chapter replaces Tasso in a public hospital. The distinguished individuals, who had repeatedly courted his society, ought in some form to have raised an annuity sufficient to shelter their alienated guest with the comforts of a gentleman : but, instead of concurrence and co-operation, they were actuated by a foolish rivalry. While the house of Este possessed Tasso, the Medici would not assist him ; when the Medici harboured him, the house of Este grew niggards of their bounty ; and when Paleno and Manso invited him to his native air, the duty of pension was thought to devolve on Naples : thus the whole burden of actual and prospective assistance was always flung on the host of the moment ; and in consequence many gentlemen were deterred from temporary civilities and accommodations, lest they should entail too lasting and heavy a claim on their bounty. The personal industry, which beneficence requires, should be levied alternately, but the pecuniary burden should be borne collectively.

In chapter XXII. Tasso visits again the friendly abode of Manso, and there undertakes his *Creazione del Mondo* ; a poem which piously amused his latter years, and which he hoped would obtain for him a permanent independence, in the form of an ecclesiastical benefice, from the Pope. He went to Rome as a suitor : but the genius of Tasso, humbled into a religious versifier, solicited in vain.

Again Tasso returns to the house of Manso, in the twenty-third chapter, and continues his task. At length, engines were set to work, which influenced papal favour. Tasso was invited to Rome, ordered to be crowned in the capitol, as poet laureate of the nation and of the church, and rewarded with a handsome pension. Every sorrow, as in the last act of a drama, seemed now about to cease at once ; and even a law-suit respecting his patrimonial property was compromised with the Prince of Avellino for a liberal annuity ; but the unhappy Tasso bore within the secret seeds of destruction. His disorder, which had been aggravated by the use of violent medicines self-prescribed, broke out afresh, and compelled him to seek refuge in the monastery of Saint Onofrio, where he died at the age of fifty-one, in the year 1595. "*Mexita ancora d'essere accennata la morte di Torquato Tasso, accaduta nello presente anno, (says Muratori;) a di 26 di Aprile in Roma, mentre si preparava la solenne di lui coronazione*

in Campidoglio: insigne poeta, e principe dei poeti epici Italiani, e filosofo di alto sapere, come costa non men dai suoi versi, che dalle sue prose, ma che, per gl' insulti della soverchia sua malinconia, fu gran tempo, per non dir sempre, zimbello della mala fortuna."

Chapter xxiv. contains general reflections on the fortunes and productions of Tasso; and a hundred pages of appendix complete the volume and the work.

In conclusion, we must acknowledge that this is a well executed piece of biography, adapted to answer the purpose for which it was intended, and to supply the fashionable world with elegant occupation for their literary leisure: its diffuseness does not pall; its digressions do not weary. Mr. Black not only displays a good and pure taste, but is extensively conversant with the fine literature of Italy, and of the modern world; and between Roscoe and Walker, the historian and the critic of Italian culture, he will be led to an honourable seat in the *Accademia degli Emeriti*. His analysis of Tasso's insanity is conducted instructively, and will assist those who are conscious of analogous tendencies, in learning to become their own keepers. Tasso, with a little more philosophy, might, like Rousseau, have escaped the inconvenience of coercion. They both suffered not from an asthenic, but from a phlogistic, disease of the brain: they could, whenever they pleased to attend, not only discern but remember all that passed in the external world: they had lost none of their faculties: but it was their luxury to paint their waking dreams into a deceptive likeness of reality. Now this luxury can be enjoyed without talking to others about each successive comedy or tragedy that imagination *gets up*, and in which *self* usually performs the principal character. With a little more reticency, Tasso would only have been called *absent*; and with a little more attention to interrupt his early fits of absence, he would never have lost the privilege of self-command.

ART. II. *Travels in the South of Spain*, in Letters written A.D. 1809 and 1810. By William Jacob, Esq., M.P. F.R.S. 4to. pp. 443. 3l. 3s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1811.

WHILE events of the greatest importance are passing in the Peninsula, and the cause of Spain is so zealously and strenuously espoused by Great Britain, every species of information respecting this portion of Europe must be peculiarly acceptable to the English reader. In no period of our history, were we so deeply interested in the concerns of Spain as at present, and never was curiosity so generally awakened with

with regard to its internal situation and the character of its inhabitants. Though the remarks of the cursory traveller are not usually very profound nor always correct, we are inclined to treat them with respect when they are presented in a pleasing manner, and discover that attentive observation and that philosophic mind which are so necessary in those who undertake to see and describe for others.

The range which Mr. Jacob's Spanish tour includes is not extensive, nor did it occupy a long space of time; but he appears to have been very diligent, to have lost no opportunity of research, and to have noted with accuracy whatever fell under his view. As far as the external appearance of that part of Spain through which he passed is concerned, he seems to have contemplated it with the eye of a landscape-painter; and his sketches of scenery in the environs of Malaga, Velez, Antequera, and Alhama, the Vega of Granada, and the city of Ronda, are executed in a strong and spirited manner. Public buildings, curiosities, and antiquities, the religion and morals, the state of the arts, the natural productions of the country, and the articles of trade and commerce, are not overlooked; nor does Mr. Jacob forget to delineate the character and manners of the people: but perhaps his short residence at Cadiz and Seville did not furnish him with materials for deciding on these points; nor was his presence at a fair, and his admission to the tertullas of the ladies, sufficient for that developement of national habits which he attempts. Much time and attention must be bestowed on the study of the physical circumstances, the local institutions, and the prevailing feelings of a people, before a foreigner can be competent to appreciate their national character. His ignorance of the origin and connection of the different moral phenomena, which present themselves to his observation, will sometimes lead him to call evil *good*, but more frequently to call good *evil*. However, it must be admitted that as a traveller Mr. Jacob is sharp-sighted; and if he has spoken in a tone of harshness respecting the Spanish character which a nearer and longer acquaintance would have shewn to be unmerited, he has suffered no trait to escape him which would strike a foreigner in passing through that country. His acquaintance with the language was slender, as is evident from the barbarous appearance of the Spanish words that occur in the volume; and a little of book-making contrivance is manifest in his introduction of the history of the Moors in Spain, which we suspect to have been composed since his return to London. Yet on the whole he has produced a very amusing and an instructive narrative; and they who wish to have a view of Andalusia and Granada will

not be displeased with the Panorama which he has here provided for the public at home,— though the price of admission is very high.

Mr. Jacob landed at Cadiz in September 1809; and after having noticed a variety of subordinate objects, he presents us with some remarks on the political situation of Spain, and its probable state hereafter :

‘ Nothing is more certain than that the Spanish nation, generally, is routed to madness against France : few are to be found who would not willingly plunge a dagger into the breast of a Frenchman whenever the occasion might offer, but there is no government, no ruling mind, to concentrate this universal feeling : whatever is done by Spaniards is individual effort, not combined exertion ; and when they have attempted military operations on a great scale, they have been uniformly unsuccessful : they have only chosen the wrong means of warfare ; and even should their armies be dispersed, and their strong towns taken (events which I anticipate) the invaders will be so far from conquest, that a warfare will commence of the most destructive species for France, and the most secure for Spain : then will those conflicts begin in which individual exertion is every thing, and combination unnecessary. From the defiles and mountains, where they will remain sheltered and concealed till opportunities offer, the Spaniards will harass and massacre the French in detail ; they will prevent all intercourse between the different towns ; they will stop cultivation in the plains ; and perhaps, after years of confusion and bloodshed, drive the French, as they formerly did the Moors, from their soil.

‘ Every local circumstance is in favour of the Spaniards in this kind of warfare. The roads are passable only for mules, but no wheel-carriages can travel to the interior. The valleys between these mountains yield almost spontaneously all that a Spaniard requires ; the climate is so fine that the peasantry scarcely stand in need of habitations ; and the flocks of sheep will supply them with skins for clothing without the aid of manufactures.

‘ There are few villages, or even solitary houses, in Spain ; almost all the people live in towns, which are at a great distance from each other, and the fields consequently remain uncultivated, except in the vicinity of these towns ; to this may be added, that the Spaniards are of all men the most frugal and moderate in their subsistence ; a bunch of grapes, or a melon, with garlic, suffices them, and they want no other drink but water.

‘ Their animosity to the French is inflamed to madness ; and their rage, fury, and revengeful passions will burn with increased ardour as the enemy continue their depredations. I have said enough to shew you my opinion on the future state of Spain : at present the defeat of Arceaga has cast a gloom over the prospects of the privileged orders of society : these may be swept away ; but the Spanish people, the peasantry and the cultivators, will remain and will ultimately triumph.’

From Cadiz, the traveller proceeded to Xeres, a city which is celebrated for a wine much used in England :

‘ The

* The streets of this city are wider than those of Cadiz : there is a good paved foot-path, and it is well lighted : some of the houses are splendid, and that belonging to Mr. James Gordon, a gentleman to whom I had particular introductions, possesses every comfort and accommodation to be expected in an English habitation. The principal commerce of this place consists of wine, especially of that species so generally known by the name of Sherry. The quantity annually made in this place is about 40,000 pipes, of this 25,000 are consumed in this city, in Cadiz, and the vicinity ; 15,000 are exported, of which about 7000 are sent to England ; and the remainder to the United States, or to the different Spanish dominions in South America. The value of the wine, when new, is from eight to ten pounds per pipe ; it increases in value by age, and that which is sent to England is always mixed with brandy, which occasions a further augmentation in the price. Most of the wine merchants in Xeres have distilleries, to make brandy to add to their wine, but do not export any. A large quantity of it is likewise consumed in the mountainous part of Andalusia, where it is mixed with aniseed, and very much used by the lower class of people during the winter. There are no staves nor iron hoops made in this part of Spain, so that supplies are obliged to be obtained from foreign countries, for the packages in which they even export their most important production. The United States of America furnish the staves, and the iron hoops are sent from England.

* Besides the wine sent to England, under the denomination of Sherry, there are some sweet wines made in this neighbourhood, which are much valued by the natives, and among others the tent wine, as it is called in England. Very little care is employed in the original making of their wines ; the growers are generally poor, and indebted to the merchants of this city, who, by advancing them money before the vintage, are enabled to take advantage of their embarrassed circumstances, to purchase at rates, which keep those growers in a perpetual state of dependence. This want of capital is felt in a still greater degree by the owners of the olive trees, the variable produce of which frequently leaves them too deeply in debt, in unfruitful years, to enable them to clear themselves in those which are more productive. To this deficiency of agricultural capital may probably be attributed the languishing state of the cultivation in Spain.—

* Xeres contains about 40,000 inhabitants, including the Pueblo, or township, which is very extensive, though thinly inhabited, and consists chiefly of scattered farms and vineyards, upon which some few of the owners reside, though far the greater part live within the city. The pueblo extends over a track of country 45 miles in length and 18 in breadth, and is consequently as large as some of our English counties ; yet, exclusively of the city, the whole consists of no more than 101 large farm houses, 77 smaller ones, 555 houses attached to the vineyards, 23 houses situated in olive grounds, and 55 houses in fruit and vegetable gardens. Such is the state of population in one of the best peopled districts of Andalusia, and perhaps in the finest climate and the richest soil in Europe ; every thing has been

done by nature, but the institutions of the government, and the indolence of the inhabitants, have effected nothing to improve the advantages she has bestowed.'

Several letters are written at Seville, and every object of curiosity in this capital of Andalusia is duly noticed; its entrance and general appearance, its streets, houses, walks, and public buildings, paintings in the churches, &c.: but Mr. J. seems to have been more gratified by the remains of Moorish magnificence in this part of Spain, than by the architecture of churches, or even by the remains of Roman grandeur. The Alcazar, an antient Moorish palace in Seville, is thus described:

'The outside of the Alcazar is miserable in its appearance; but the first court after entering the gate has a very grand effect: the front, looking into that court, is purely Arabic in its style, and the inscriptions favour the idea of its being built by that people; it is, nevertheless, ascertained to have been constructed since the conquest, by the Christians; and, indeed, the arms of Castile and Leon are mingled with the Arabic characters. The flight of stairs leading to the royal apartments, now occupied by Garay, is of marble; and some galleries, of the same material, lead to other parts of the building. The courts are ornamented with marble fountains, and are well shaded with corridors, supported by marble pillars. The hall, now occupied by the Junta, formerly called the Hall of Ambassadors, is a beautiful apartment, adorned with elegant designs in stucco, and with a floor of the most transparent marble, of various colours. The rooms adjoining are occupied by the different committees, or, as they are called, sections, into which the Junta is divided, and the whole palace, which is very extensive, is filled by the different branches of the government, whose clerks have offices very well adapted for the dispatch of business from their proximity to each other.

'The garden of the Alcazar is said to have been laid out by the Moors, and is preserved in its original state; it contains walks paved with marble, parterres laid out with ever-greens, and well shaded with orange trees. In many parts of it there are baths, supplied by marble fountains from the aqueduct I described in a former letter, and they have a contrivance for rendering the walks one continued fountain, by forcing up small streams of water from minute pipes in the joining of the slabs, which in this climate produces a most grateful effect. As a specimen of an Arabian garden, in its original state, this is an interesting object, and we naturally associate with it recollections gathered from the Eastern writers, especially from the Song of Solomon, in the Scriptures, in which the descriptions very well agree with this garden; for, in addition to the other circumstances, it is completely walled round, and is secluded from every one except the inhabitants of one part of the palace.

'The saloon, which was occupied by the Junta of Seville when its energy directed the public mind of this city, contains a collection of
Roman

Roman antiquities brought from Italica, an antient city, about four miles hence, and celebrated as the birth-place of the Emperor Trajan. I observed some fine statues which, though partly mutilated, shew the superiority of the antients over the moderns in the art of sculpture: a colossal figure, supposed to be Apollo, is remarkably well executed; and the statue of a vestal, in good preservation, discovers great skill in the figure and disposition of the drapery. The Roman inscriptions collected in this place are very numerous, and worthy the attention of those who are fond of studying them. I hope my taste will not be too severely condemned if I remark, that the Moorish antiquities afford me greater pleasure than the Roman; to me they possess more of novelty, have been much less described, and are in every respect better adapted to the climate.'

A protestant's visit to the Cathedral at Seville, on Sunday, naturally excited a train of reflections on the effect of the Catholic ceremonies on morals; and a comparison is made between the efficacy of preaching and of auricular confession; the latter of which, if we may depend on the *blabbing* of a priest, keeps down all vices except one:

'With the higher order, the great struggle of the confessor is to keep the mind free from doubts, to enforce submission to the dogmas and ceremonies of the Church, and prevent the inroad of heresy. With the other classes there is no such task; they never read books written by foreigners, nor ever converse with them; they have no doubts on points of faith, no scruples in matters of ceremony, and the task of the confessor is more directly addressed to the formation of the moral habits of sobriety, honesty, and veracity. On these points they have evidently been successful; for I have never been in any country where the mass of the people has approached the conduct of the Spaniards in these respects; in chastity, as far as I can judge, they have not been so successful; whether the evil arise from the celibacy of the clergy, the voluptuous climate, or the remains of Moorish manners, I cannot determine; but there is, in this respect, a degree of profligacy extending to all ranks in this country, which I trust will ever remain unexampled in our own. A priest, with whom I was conversing on this subject a few days ago, assured me, that of the numerous females who came to him for absolution, he seldom found any who confessed the violation of any commandment but the seventh.'

Pope calls "beads and prayer-books" the toys of age: but it should seem, from the account here given of the family-worship of the Spaniards, that they are *universal* toys, and are used like the play-things of children without sentiment or reflection. Adverting to the prevailing propensity of this people, Mr. J. discovers, in the toys at their fairs, traits of national character; and he remarks, on the fair of Santi-Ponce, a few miles from Seville, 'that almost every thing exhibited at this fair bore some allusion to that illicit intercourse between the

sexes, which forms the great stain upon the moral character of the country. Horns of various shapes, with bells, and inscriptions of indecent import, were most prevalent, and the presenting them to each other, with sarcastic insinuations, appeared the most universal species of wit. A marked deference was paid to the female sex even by the peasantry, which shewed that a degree of gallantry is customary with this nation, which is too often dispensed with in other countries.

If gallantry, however, be carried to excess, temperance in eating and drinking is a prevailing habit; and it is impossible for one of our countrymen to visit the Spanish cities without marking the difference between the Spaniards and the English in the use of wine, though the former may obtain it as native produce, and the latter import and purchase it at a great expence :

‘In England, every family has a store of beer, wine, and such other necessaries as they require for daily use, ready at all times but the best families in Seville keep nothing of the kind in their houses. If company accidentally drop in to a meal, a thing not common, they send to the shops for such food as they want, and to the wine-houses for a pint or a quart of wine, for they are never provided with the commonest of those articles, and at the conclusion of the day no provision is left in the house.’

However afflicting to humanity the present state of Spain must be, it is consolatory to perceive that the institutions which degraded and enalaved it cannot survive the present struggle, and that neither the Inquisition nor Monastic Orders will have any existence on the Peninsula in the next generation. ‘I have no doubt,’ says Mr. J. speaking of Convents, ‘that their doom will speedily be sealed, for they cannot discover greater animosity towards the French, than all virtuous and patriotic Spaniards feel towards the inhabitants of these receptacles of idleness, ignorance, and hypocrisy.’

Before this traveller quits Seville, he devotes a letter or two to the enumeration of the agricultural articles produced in Andalusia, viz. esparto, pita, opuntia, palmitos, olives, vines, wheat, &c. and to the live-stock of the farmers, including some particulars of the Merino sheep: but, as we have had long accounts of this celebrated breed from preceding works, we shall pass over these details, and others on trade, to dwell on the striking scenery of the districts which Mr. Jacob explored.

From Seville he returned to Cadiz, and was present at the bull-fight given in honour of Lord Wellington; after which he proceeded to Gibraltar, and thence to Marbella. In the road to the latter place, the picturesque views and richness of the country attracted the traveller's notice :

‘At

* At the distance of one league, we passed Rio verde, or the green river, which comes down, in a chasm or fissure, between the high chain of mountains called Sierra Vermeja, and the one called Sierra de Arboto. On passing this river, I could have easily supposed that I was in Jamaica; for a considerable distance on both sides of the road, fields of sugar canes, nine or ten feet in height, were intermixed with others of rice; and several mills for grinding the canes, turned by the streams which descend from the mountains, still farther favoured the deception. The contrast which this last league formed to the nine we had previously travelled, created both surprise and pleasure; the plain, between the mountains and the sea, became gradually broader, and more enriched with every tropical production; whereas the country we had hitherto passed was sandy and barren, with no shrubs but the palmito.

The route to the city of Malaga and the country around it furnish scenery equally enchanting; and though Mr. J. complains of bad roads, miserable posadas, and straw beds, his mental entertainment must have repaid him for all his bodily fatigues and temporary privations. What Englishman of taste would not gladly sleep in a Spanish posada, on straw, in order to enjoy the climate and explore the beauties of Andalusia and Granada! For a moment, however, we shall abstain from views of nature, that we may give one sketch of a sacred edifice:

‘The cathedral of Malaga is a very fine object; its style of building is a mixture of Roman and Gothic, though it was erected long after the power of those nations was extinct; for it was begun in 1529, and consecrated in 1588. Being closely surrounded with houses, it is not seen to advantage, but it is said to be as large as St. Paul’s. Catholic churches generally appear less in size than Protestant cathedrals, from the choir being placed in the centre, and the high altar in another part of the building. The number of chapels also, as well as the images and pictures, which abound in the former, contribute to this effect. The interior of this church is finished with exquisite taste; it is an oblong spheroid, with a row of Corinthian pillars, around which is the nave; these pillars support a lofty roof of well-turned arches, with the sky painted in the compartments. The high altar, and the pulpit are of beautiful flesh-coloured marble, and the choir is so singularly fine, that Palomino, the biographer of Spanish artists, calls it the eighth wonder of the world. It contains about fifty stalls, curiously carved in cedar and mahogany, and a considerable number of statues of saints, the work of Alonzo Cano, and of his pupil Pedro de Mena, whose celebrity is little inferior to that of his master.’

Hence we attend the traveller to Velez; who, as he proceeds, remarks on the agriculture of the delightful valleys which he explores. On leaving Velez for Granada, he passed for the first hour through the most charming country in the world:

world: but after this time the climbing of precipices commenced. The view from the elevated ground, as he approached Granada, is thus described :

‘ When we reached the top of the small hills, and were within two leagues of the city, that most interesting object, with the whole plain beneath, presented itself to our view : nothing could exceed the prospect which then opened upon us : the rich and populous country, well supplied with trees, and clear rivulets descending from the mountains, and artificially contrived to intersect it in every part ; the splendid city, extending, in a half-moon, from the river, clothing the gradual ascent of a hill ; the streets rising above each other ; the profusion of turrets and gilded cupolas ; the summit crowned with the Alhambra ; the back ground composed of the majestic Sierra Nevada*, with its top covered with snow, completed a scene, to which no description can do justice ; a scene, to view which we had ridden on horseback two hundred miles, over the worst roads in the world, and which we, nevertheless, considered as amply repaying us for the fatigue we had endured, and the filth we had encountered. We rode over the remainder of the plain, till we passed the bridge across the Darro, and entered the city.

‘ This place, however, should be viewed at a distance, and not be too nearly inspected ; for the splendid poverty visible within destroys the illusion created by a distant view.’

We pass over the sketch of the Moorish dominions in Spain, the letter on the Alhambra, and a variety of particulars relative to the cities of Granada and Antequara, in order to allow space for the description of the city of Ronda :

‘ This city contains about twenty thousand inhabitants, who are a hardy race of people, and have much the appearance of the natives of the north of Europe : the complexion of many of them approaches almost to ruddy, but with those peculiarly expressive features which distinguish the middle and lower classes in Andalusia. The fertile fields and productive gardens which surround Ronda, afford to its people abundant means of subsistence ; besides wine, oil, and corn, which they enjoy in common with other parts of the province, they have a profusion of all the fruits and vegetables of our more northern climate : the apples and pears with which the trees are loaded, equal or excel in flavour those of our own country ; and the cities of Cadiz and Seville, while they are supplied with oranges, lemons, grapes, and pomegranates, from their more immediate vicinity, are furnished from this quarter with the vegetable luxuries of northern Europe.’—

‘ Among the various things which have attracted my attention in Spain, none have excited so much admiration as the singular situation of this city, the river Guadiaro which encircles it, and the bridges which connect it with its suburbs. It is placed on a rock, with

* ‘ The loftiest point of the Sierra Nevada, called Mulhacen, is 12,762, feet above the level of the sea.’ See p. 296.

cliffs either perpendicular and abrupt towards the river, or with broken craggs, whose jutting prominences, having a little soil, have been planted with orange and fig trees. A fissure in this rock, of great depth, surrounds the city on three sides, and at the bottom of the fissure the river rushes along with impetuous rapidity. Two bridges are constructed over the fissure; the first is a single arch, resting on the rocks on the two sides, the height of which from the water is one hundred and twenty feet. The river descends from this to the second bridge, whilst the rocks on each side as rapidly increase in height; so that from this second bridge to the water, there is the astonishing height of two hundred and eighty feet. The highest tower in Spain, the Giralda in Seville, or the Monument near London Bridge, if they were placed on the water, might stand under this stupendous arch, without their tops reaching to it.—

‘It is impossible to convey an adequate idea of it: from below it appears suspended in the air; and when upon the bridge, the river beneath appears no longer a mighty torrent, but resembles a rippling brook. When standing on the bridge, the optical delusion is very singular: the torrent of water appears to run up a hill towards the bridge, and the same phenomenon takes place when viewed in either direction.

‘One of the streets of the city is built almost close to the edge of the precipice, and stairs are hewn out of the solid rock, which lead to nooks in the lower precipices, in which, though there is very little soil, gardens have been formed, where fig and orange trees grow with considerable luxuriance, and greatly contribute to the beauty of the scenery. From the situation of Ronda on the top of a rock, water is scarce, and stairs are constructed down to the river, by which means the inhabitants are supplied. We descended by one flight of three hundred and fifty steps, and at the bottom found a fine spring, in a large cave, which after turning a mill at its source, contributes to increase the waters of the Guadiaro. From this spot, our view of the lofty bridge was most striking and impressive, and the houses and churches of the city, impending over our heads on both banks, had a most sublime effect. Beyond the bridge, the river takes a turn to the right and passes under the Alameyda, from which, the precipice of five hundred feet is very bold and abrupt, though interspersed with jutting prominences, covered with shrubs and trees. The Alameyda of this city is by far the most beautiful public walk I have seen in Spain: the paths are paved with marble; the parterres are filled with ever-greens; and over the paths, vines are trained on trellises, which, in the warmest weather, afford a grateful shade.’

After these long extracts, we must briefly advert to the remainder of the tour.

From Ronda, Mr. Jacob returned through St. Roque to Gibraltar and Cadiz. Having adverted to the military and and naval transactions in that quarter, to the government of the Junta, to the state of the population of this city, inclusive of that of the isle of Leon, and to the arrival of British and

and Portuguese troops, he quits the peninsula, and reaches the shores of his native country in March 1810; so that a few months sufficed for Mr. J. to collect the materials of this quarto volume. According to a document in the appendix, the population of all Spain is reckoned at 10,351,075: but we are apprized in one of the letters, that the Spaniards are apt to exaggerate the amount of their population, and we should suppose that the above estimate is an evidence in point.

When in his postscript, dated London Feb. 14, 1811., Mr. Jacob reviews the state of the war in the peninsula, and considers the persevering habits, the patriotic feelings, and the everlasting hatred of France, which characterize the people of Spain, he is inclined to entertain hopes of their final success against their enemies, even supposing that their own troops were dispersed, the strong towns taken, and the army of their ally discomfited. We may possibly count too much on the patient perseverance of the Spaniards, and on their high-toned patriotism: but, as their cause is good, and as the interest of Britain is as it were identified with that of Spain, the assistance which we have offered to her is not less politic than generous. It must be the prayer of every true-born Briton, that we may succeed in delivering the peninsula from the despotism with which she is menaced; and that her present distractions may terminate in the establishment of a government that shall recognize and foster those principles, which must form the basis of national happiness.

Mr. Jacob does not profess himself an artist: but, travelling with a *Camera lucida*, he has taken views of several objects, which are represented in 12 plates, affording accurate views of buildings, &c. in Spain, though in general but indifferently executed in aqua-tinta.

ART. III. *Letters of the Marquise Du Deffand to the Hon. Horace Walpole*, afterwards Earl of Orford, from the Year 1766 to the Year 1780 to which are added, *Letters of Madame Du Deffand to Voltaire*, from the Year 1759 to the Year 1775, published from the Originals at Strawberry Hill. 4 Vols. 12mo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

WHEN in offering our sentiments on the volumes of letters of which the title-page was illustrated by the name of Madame du Deffand*, though the body of the work contained scarcely a single production of her pen, we expressed a desire to be admitted to a fuller acquaintance with her epistolary style,

* See the Appendix to our 60th Volume, N. S. p. 487.

we were not aware of the ample means of gratifying our curiosity which have now been so liberally poured forth from the *escrutoirs* of Strawberry Hill. The fact, indeed, of a great intimacy and a continual correspondence between that lady and Mr. Walpole might have been collected from many passages of his posthumous works: but whether his letters had been considered as worthy of preservation, their very frequency would perhaps have justified us in doubting; and how far it is prudent to have submitted them to public inspection, we may now venture to determine.

We must first observe that they are written under unfavourable circumstances. Madame du Deffand appears to have conceived a warm friendship for Mr. Walpole, who was by no means indifferent to the partiality of so distinguished a literary lady; and a correspondence naturally commenced between them, the gentleman being then on the verge of fifty, and the lady having reached the ordinary term assigned to the life of mortals. Such an intercourse might be expected to exist without suspicion, as well as without scandal, particularly as the parties had frequent personal interviews, in which the state of their feelings might have been unequivocally ascertained; and the fondness of the lady, of which Mr. Walpole perpetually and loudly complains, appears to have been exhibited on paper only. It is in truth more like the strong and importunate attachment of a mother than any other sentiment; yet it draws on the Marquise the incessant, and we think rather indelicate reproaches of one who, frankly confessing that to him ridicule is the worst of evils, intimates that her letters expose him to the imputation of playing the gallant with an old woman, and laughs unmercifully at her romantic extravagancies. Even if the suspicion had been well founded, these attacks would not have borne the most gracious aspect: but as it was really too absurd to be entertained, we cannot too much admire the patience of the lady in submitting to continue the correspondence on terms so humiliating, and to justify herself in contrite language, though occasionally mingled with disappointment and displeasure, from an offence which most certainly it was one of the greatest outrages to impute to her.

If the circumstance to which we have alluded throws an unpleasing restraint over the lady's style, another of an opposite nature must prevent the general reader from enjoying these letters with much relish; — we mean that extreme familiarity which dwells on a thousand minutiae of no interest beyond a certain sphere, and which disfigures them with what Madame du D. herself has well censured in the phrase, *plaisanterie de sturie*. Thus the Duke and Dutchess de Choisenl, relations of

Madame du Deffand, are always mentioned under the names of grandpapa and grandmama; and the writer keeps up the character of a pupil with Mr. Walpole, who is hailed as her instructor. We may observe, *en passant*, that he does not so well preserve his assumed part, when he recommends to a female scholar the perusal of such a work as the romances of the younger Crebillon. — We must add that this *recueil* is by much too numerous. Scarcely a week passed without producing one letter at least, during the separation of the parties; and though some portions of the correspondence are suppressed, and others curtailed, we still have more specimens than are necessary. Besides, this frequency of writing, though very favourable to ease of manner, is somewhat prejudicial to originality of thought; and if letters could derive any considerable value from the mere absence of affectation, the public might be deluged with the familiar intercourse of every domestic circle in the kingdom. Nothing is more fascinating than ease and frankness, when displayed by persons who are employed on works of lasting renown, or by those in exalted stations who are conversant with great and interesting affairs: but among individuals in private stations, living the common-place life of ordinary mortals, reporting almost daily the events which pass around them, or their own opinions on contemporary literature, an unaffected manner is expected so much as a matter of course that it confers no merit, while its opposite is unpardonable. We are not ashamed to own that we think more highly of this lady's letters to Voltaire, than of those which are addressed to Mr. Walpole, merely because they are composed with somewhat more of study and of reflection: but we must remark that an unfortunate effect is produced by finding these two collections united in one publication: since the eulogies addressed by the eloquent writer to Voltaire are, if possible, more enthusiastic than those which she directs to her English correspondent; and yet, in speaking of the former to the latter, she can scarcely find language sufficiently strong to express her contempt and dislike of him as a man, or the *ennui* produced by some of his latter compositions as a writer.

The freedom, with which we have censured the contents of these volumes, will remove all suspicion of partiality from the degree of praise to which we think that they are justly intitled. They are certainly valuable for a great variety of anecdotes relating to distinguished characters, principally of our country, and for the judgment passed on them by a person so highly accomplished, and endowed with such remarkable good sense and knowledge of the world, as Madame du Deffand. We cannot, indeed, admit that no exceptions may be made to the

the epithet bestowed on her by Voltaire, *l'aveugle clairvoyante*; since in some few particulars she is most wonderfully deceived : but her general remarks are judicious, — her style is clear and strong, — her opinions on authors and their writings are developed with great precision, and, though often peculiar and capricious, they always deserve attention.

The office of the editor*, in introducing us to the acquaintance of the several persons named, has been executed with attention and diligence : but we remark a decisive tone of observation, and an ambitious finery of style, which do not appear quite seasonable in explanatory notes. A life of the writer is prefixed, which supplies many particulars omitted in the short notice accompanying the Parisian collection. She was born in the year 1697, of the noble family de Vichy Chamrond, in the province of Burgundy. Her mother was of the house of d'Albon, in the same province. The editor, after having shortly described some of her near connections, speaks in the following terms of her education :

‘ Mademoiselle de Chamrond, for so Mad. du Deffand was called before her marriage, was educated like other young Frenchwomen of fashion, in a convent at Paris. She was placed in that of La Madeleine de Trenelle, in the rue de Charonne. Among her papers are preserved several letters, addressed to her between the age of sixteen and nineteen, by a priest, who attended the pupils of this convent as confessor, or as they were then called *directeur*, which letters prove, that she had thus early entertained doubts upon religious subjects, which were unfortunately rather encreased than diminished by the zealous but ill-directed arguments of the priest. Mr. Walpole says, that — “ her parents, alarmed at her sentiments, sent her the famous Massillon to talk to her. She was not awed by his character, nor dazzled by his arguments, but defended herself with good sense, and the prelate was more struck by her ingenuity and beauty, than shocked at her heresy.” He adds that, “ from that time till her death, at the age of eighty-three, she never affected scepticism, and always wished to be devout, as the state of the greatest happiness even in this world.” This happy state, however, from the mismanagement of her mind in early youth, and its subsequent want of all proper culture, she never attained.’

At what age this lady was married by her parents to the Marquis du Deffand, we are not informed : but the editor remarks

* No name is assigned in these volumes to the person who has executed the editorial functions with regard to them, and the language is apparently studied to avoid a disclosure even as to sex : but it is generally understood that the publication has been superintended by Miss Berry, or the two sisters of that name, who have long been known in the fashionable circles of this metropolis, and were so particularly distinguished by Mr. Horace Walpole.

that

that the union was probably forced on her, and that she availed herself, as soon as possible, of the privilege of exercising that liberty of choice after marriage which before had been denied to her. Neither is it known how soon she separated from him : but the divorce seems to have been complete and final, though no animosity existed between her and her husband, whom she visited on his death bed. We presume that she never had any children. ' It is said that she had the disreputable honour of pleasing the Regent Duke of Orleans, and of being for a short time the object of his licentious and degrading love.' Here a chasm occurs in her history, till, at the age of fifty-seven, she experienced the severe calamity of a total loss of sight. The connection then formed by her with Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse is here ascribed partly to an additional motive beyond the mere wish of enjoying her conversation, for it appears that the last-mentioned lady was the illegitimate offspring of a female branch of the d'Albon family, and was supposed likely to cause an unpleasant *éclat* by claiming the relationship. She is said by the editor to have obtained credit by the sacrifice of her supposed rights, from motives of delicacy to the memory of her mother ; — credit which she seems to deserve, since it would have been certainly natural to make this disclosure at the period of her parting in disgust from Madame du Deffand. In her last moments, her resolution failed, her will being signed "*Julie d'Albon*," and calling on her nephew de Vichy to pay any unsatisfied demands against her.

The editor does not appear to have been aware of the generally unknown and singular relationship existing between Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse and d'Alembert, of which we stated the particulars in the article before cited : but the reader is properly warned against adopting the unfavourable account given by the latter, and by Marmontel, of the conduct displayed by Madame du Deffand towards her companion. It is truly remarked that the literary factions of Paris obscured the real merits of every possible transaction ; and the avowed enmity of Mad. du D. against the *Encyclopédistes* would amply account for their treating her character with injustice. We must, however, add that the sentiments of abhorrence which she cherished against Mademoiselle de l'E., and which are proved by this correspondence to have existed in full vigor even at the moment of her death, excite a strong suspicion against her who could entertain them. *Odisse quem laseris* is a deep-rooted principle in the human heart. — This prejudice was naturally extended to d'Alembert and Marmontel, and perhaps had some effect on the writer's opinion of other leading men among the philosophers of Paris ; such as Buffon, whose style she condemns, —

demns, — Turgot, whose talents she depreciates, and whose scheme she ridicules, — and the whole tribe of supposed disciples of Voltaire, who alone, of all contemporary authors, seems to have commanded her admiration. Rousseau she charges with the affectation of sensibility, and Hume (still more extraordinary!) with harsh and disagreeable manners. She does, however, agree that a letter written by him to Madame de Boufflers, on the death of the Prince of Conti, is very beautiful; and to us it appears so extremely interesting, that we cannot refrain from inserting a translation of it in our pages. The date is Edinburgh, August the 20th, 1776.

"Though I am certainly within a few weeks, perhaps within a few days, of my own death, I cannot, my dear Madam, help being struck with that of the Prince du Conti, in every respect so great a loss! My reflections instantly led me to your situation, as affected by this unhappy event. What a difference in the whole system of your life! Give me, I entreat you, some details, but in such a manner that you need not be embarrassed, into whatever hands your letter may fall after my death. My disorder is a diarrhoea, or complaint of the bowels, which has undermined me for two years, and has made, during the last two months, a visible progress in drawing me to my end. I see death daily approaching, without uneasiness and without regret. I bid you adieu, with much affection and respect, for the last time.

"David Hume."

On this letter, it is impossible to make any stronger comment than by stating the fact mentioned by the editor, viz. that Hume died on the 25th of August, five days after he wrote it.

Madame du Deffand, in the judgments passed by her on her English acquaintance, does not always decide with accuracy, nor does she thoroughly understand the character of our countrymen. To Burke, indeed, she pays the merited homage of profound admiration; and her objections to the style of his speech on economical reform may be considered as no proofs of an incorrect taste. In the same manner, she was charmed with the conversation of Gibbon, but wearied with the eternal rhetoric displayed in his history. When speaking of those whom she knew only from the part taken by them in society, she falls into some extraordinary mistakes: but she is perhaps the most extravagantly wrong, when she speaks of that man who will be regarded by Englishmen of all future ages with more pride and affection than any one of his contemporaries. Her observation of Mr. Fox, indeed, was made in those days of thoughtless dissipation, which form the most striking contrast, and perhaps impart the highest merit, to the noble employment of his more advanced life. Little could she foresee the first of modern statesmen in the person of a wild young man, whose high spirits assumed the appearance of madness.—Of our political system

she was likewise perfectly ignorant, and she with horror exclaims, after having perused one of Mr. Fox's speeches on the American war,—“*il a l'audace de Cromwell !*”

The opinions of this accomplished lady on the subject of English literature would have been much more valuable if she had understood our language ; yet her natural good sense was highly gratified by Shakspeare, even when disfigured by a translation, and attacked by every variety of French prejudice. At a very late period of her life, she took refuge in his works from the insipidity which disgusted her in the productions of her own countrymen : but she feared the effect of his deeper tragedies on her nerves. She frequently compares him to Corneille, but is evidently sensible of his superiority to the French dramatist ; on whom some of her criticisms, addressed to Voltaire, while engaged in superintending the publication of his works, are remarkable for just discrimination. We extract two or three sentences :

“ I beg your pardon with all humility, but I think you are a little unjust towards Corneille. I admit all the faults with which you reproach him, except when you say that he never delineates nature. Confess at least that he often represents it according as education and the manners of the country embellish or disgrace it, and that his characters have not the uniformity which belongs to almost all Racine's plays. Cornelia is, I allow, greater than nature, but such were the Roman women ; and nearly all the great actions of the Romans were the result of a style of sentiment and of reasoning far removed from general reality. Love, perhaps, may be called the only natural passion ; it is almost the only one that is painted by Racine, and is always exhibited by him after the French manner. His style is enchanting and uniformly admirable. Corneille, as you remark, has only flashes, but they are transporting ; and in spite of the enormity of his faults, he inspires respect and veneration.” Again — “ I am delighted with the sublimity of his genius, and perfectly astonished that he could be at the same time so void of taste. It is not that I am shocked by mean and familiar expressions ; those I attribute to his limited knowledge of the world and its usages : but the manner in which he is repeatedly turning and twisting the same thought is very contrary to genius, and is almost always the mark of a confined understanding.”

We transcribe part of another note to Voltaire, written on the occasion of sending him a letter from her old friend the President Heinnault, in defence of that religion which he had despised in the early part of his life, but in which he found his best consolation under the pressure of disease, and on the approach of death :

“ The letter which I send you has astonished me, and I think it will produce the same effect on you. The style, the correctness, the taste,

taste,—how wonderful for an *octogenaire* ! Could a man of thirty write with more force, elegance, or delicacy ? The first part has particularly charmed me ; the latter*, I own, betrays a maturer age : but, M. de Voltaire, the professed follower of truth, tell me honestly have you always overtaken her ? You combat and destroy all errors, but what do you substitute for them ? Does any thing real exist ? Is not all illusion ? Fontenelle says, there are playthings for every age. On this subject I fancy that I have some of the finest thoughts in the world, but I should become ridiculous enough to be pointed at, if I acted the philosopher with you ; it would be too easy for you to confound me, and leave me without the power of replying. I remember that in my youth, when at the convent, Madame de Luynes sent Father Massillon to me ; my genius trembled before his, and I yielded, not to the force of the reasoning, but to the weight of the advocate. All discourses on a certain subject seem to me useless ; the multitude understand them not, young people do not care about them, persons of sense do not want them, and how can we be at the trouble of enlightening fools ? Let every one think and live after his own fashion, and let us permit every one to see with his own spectacles : let us not flatter ourselves that toleration can ever be established ; the persecuted, indeed, will always preach it, but, if they ceased to be persecuted, they would not practise it. Whatever opinion men entertain, they wish to compel all the rest of the world to adopt it."

Never was more said in fewer words, nor the unhappy state of a powerful mind portrayed with fewer touches of the pencil. The short critique on the writings of Voltaire includes the whole of his moral and metaphysical character.

We have only room left for a single extract from the principal subject of these volumes, the letters of Madame du Deffand to Mr. Walpole. It relates to those of a female yet more exalted and distinguished than herself :

" I have read about thirty of Mad. de Maintenon's letters ; the collection is curious, and includes nine years, from 1706 to 1715. I continue to think that this woman was not of a false character : but she was dry, austere, insensible, and without passion ; she relates all the events of that time, which were dreadful for France and Spain, as if she took no particular interest in them ; she has the air of *ennui* rather than of interest ; her letters are full of reflection, with much good sense, and in a very simple style : but they are by no means animated, and are far from being so agreeable as those of Mad. de Sevigné ; all is feeling, all is in action in those of the latter ; she shares in every thing, and every thing interests and affects her. Mad. de Maintenon, on the contrary, describes the greatest events in which she played a part, with the most perfect *sang froid* : it is evident that she did not love the king, nor her friends, nor her relations, nor even the station which she occupied ; without sentiment, without ima-

* In which he defends the cause of Revelation.

gination, she practises no illusion on herself; she knows the intrinsic value of every thing; she is weary of life, and says that nothing but death fairly terminates misfortunes and sorrows. Another of her remarks pleases me—"there is as much of dexterity as of virtue requisite to preserve an upright conduct."—This perusal has left me with a high opinion of her mind, little esteem for her heart, and no affection for her pen: but I repeat it, I continue to believe that she was not false."

We have now said enough, perhaps, respecting the writer and the editor of these letters, but we have an observation in reserve for the publisher and another for the printer. The high price of the volumes we consider as discreditable to the former, and the incorrectness of the impression will certainly not raise the London press in the estimation of foreigners. The very numerous lists of errata do not specify half the typographical faults.

ART. IV. *A Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry*. By Robert Woodhouse, A.M. F.R.S. Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 200. 7s. 6d. Boards. Black and Co. 1809.

IF nothing more be understood by the word *Trigonometry* than is denoted by its etymology, and expressed by the definition adopted by many of the writers who have treated of the science to which it is applied, we have little reason to expect or to desire any improvement in the investigations by which its rules are obtained, and still less to hope for any alterations materially advantageous in the rules themselves. The definition of which we are speaking restricts the science of trigonometry to the solution of a single problem: "Three sides, or two sides and an angle, or a side and two angles, of a triangle, being given, to determine the other sides and angles." This problem has long ago received a complete solution; compendious rules have been deduced for the different cases which it involves; and extensive tables have been calculated to facilitate their practical application. The demonstrations, indeed, by which these rules are established, have the appearance of great variety, and assume many different aspects, according as their authors aimed at copiousness or at brevity, as they employed geometry or algebra: but, since there are not commonly many roads, essentially different from each other, by which we can arrive at truths not very remote nor very extensive, however they are diversified by arrangement or disguised by expression, they are generally in principle the same.

Had

Had we expected nothing more of Mr. Woodhouse in the present volume, than that he should give a new form to matter which has already been modelled into so great a diversity of shapes,—that he should begin his book by informing us that trigonometry is the science which teaches the measuring of triangles, and triumphantly conclude it by exhibiting in one table the solutions of all the cases of right-angled, and in another those of all the cases of oblique-angled triangles, — we should probably never have opened the work, and certainly should not have examined it with the design of calling the attention of our readers to it. Trigonometry, however, has of late undergone material alterations; like most of the mathematical sciences, it has outgrown its name; and it is no longer restricted to the calculations of the sides and angles of triangles. A great number of theorems also have been discovered, extremely curious in speculation and useful in practice, which have been referred to trigonometry, as having a nearer analogy to it than to any other part of science, although but remotely connected with its original object. By these extensions, trigonometry has been raised to a higher place in the scale of human knowledge; it is no longer valuable only for its mechanical utility in the measurement of elevations and distances on the surface of the globe, and of angles in the heavens, but it has become an instrument, and in skilful hands an instrument of much efficacy, in promoting the advancement of science. For a proof of this assertion, we can refer to the writings of Euler, and of several of his contemporaries; which present a great variety of the applications of this method to geometry both plane and solid, to mechanics, to astronomy, and even to the theory of numbers. It is indeed impossible to read with facility the writings of the mathematicians who have flourished during the last fifty years, without an acquaintance with this enlarged kind of trigonometry. The accurate and extensive knowledge of those writings, which Mr. W. has on former occasions shewn himself to possess, led us to expect from him a work which should contain something more than the ordinary treatises on the same subject; and this expectation has not been disappointed. Without omitting the solutions of the various cases of plane and spherical triangles, (of all which he has given practical examples, pointing out the different methods to which, in different cases, preference is to be assigned,) he is principally occupied in putting his readers in possession of a calculus, to which much of the success of the researches of modern mathematicians is to be attributed; and which, from its intimate connection with subjects to which at first sight it appears to bear no relation, from the uniformity and compendiousness

that it bestows on the investigations in which it is employed, and from the simplicity and symmetry of its notation, is an object of most interesting and instructive study.

As the plan of the author's treatise required that it should contain a great variety of theorems purely analytical, he has very properly preferred the algebraical to the geometrical method of investigation; thus giving his treatise an uniformity which it could not otherwise possess; and conducting his inquiries with little assistance from figures, which he introduces solely as an assistance to the imagination of the student, not as a necessary instrument of demonstration. This latter use of figures would, indeed, be peculiarly improper in the investigation of formulæ, of which one of the principal advantages is that they supersede the necessity of diagrams and constructions, in those parts of science to which they are applied.

To derive all the propositions of spherical trigonometry from the smallest numbers of principles has been an object, which has engaged the attention of several of the most eminent mathematicians of the eighteenth century. Euler, in a memoir printed in the Petersburg Transactions for 1779, formed the whole of spherical trigonometry from three fundamental equations; and he enriched the same collection with a number of new and curious applications of the formulæ which he obtained. De Gua, in the Memoirs of the French Academy for 1783, proposes to derive a complete system of trigonometrical formulæ from a single equation: but his calculations are so complicated, that (as La Grange has observed,) they serve rather to shew the inconvenience of his method than to recommend it to adoption. At last, La Grange, in the second volume of the "*Journal de l'Ecole Polytechnique*," gave a complete theory of spherical triangles, obtained from a single equation, and thus left nothing to be desired in point of simplicity of principle. This method is very little different from that of Mr. Woodhouse; who, after having mentioned the publications which we have noticed, and some others of a similar nature, disclaims any pretension to originality, — although, as he informs us, he once thought that much of what his treatise contained was new. This avowal is made with so much candor, that we can scarcely help regretting his disappointment: but it is one which has probably fallen to the lot of most of those who have cultivated the mathematical sciences with much diligence or success. Yet, though Mr. Woodhouse may lament the anticipation of his discoveries, our students have reason to rejoice that his labours have produced a treatise which will enable them to read, with comparative ease, those inquiries into the system of the universe which they would otherwise have found inac-

inaccessible; and which, in the vast magnitude and importance of their object, in their immediate and extensive application to one of the most useful arts of life, and in the precision and accuracy to which they have arrived, constitute the proudest boast of mathematical philosophy, and one of the most splendid achievements of intellectual labour.

Before we conclude our notice of this publication, we will mention what appears to us a deficiency in one of its proofs; and which, though of no great importance, we wish to point out to the author, because he will probably have an early opportunity of correcting it. In p. 51. he substitutes for

$$x^{\frac{n+1}{2}} + \frac{1}{x^{\frac{n+1}{2}}}, 2 \cos. \frac{n+1}{2} A \left(x + \frac{1}{x} \text{ being } = 2 \cos. A \right).$$

This, we apprehend, cannot legitimately be done, unless it be shewn that, if $x + \frac{1}{x} = 2 \cos. A$, $x^m + \frac{1}{x^m} = 2 \cos. mA$, whether m be a whole number or half an odd number; and Mr. W.'s proof that, if $x + \frac{1}{x} = 2 \cos. A$, $x^m + \frac{1}{x^m} = 2 \cos. mA$, as it now stands, (p. 50.) applies only to the case in which m is a whole number; though with a slight modification, it may be made general.

ART. V. *A Treatise on Isoperimetrical Problems, and the Calculus of Variations.* By Robert Woodhouse, A.M. F.R.S., Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 154. 6s. Boards. Black and Co. 1810.

WHOEVER has attended to the literary history of the last century must have observed that, although mathematical science has been making rapid and continual advances from the commencement of that æra to the present moment, its progress has been very little accelerated by the efforts of English writers. The discoveries of Newton have pushed but few and feeble shoots in their native soil, while in foreign climates they have been matured into fertility and expanded into luxuriance. Various attempts have been made to account for a phenomenon at once so singular and so obvious. To some persons, the present generation of their countrymen appears to be a degenerate and frivolous race, incapable of those efforts of study and meditation from which alone improvements in the more abstruse sciences are to be expected: others are of opinion that our attention has been diverted to different subjects, and

that we have fewer writers because we have fewer readers of mathematics than formerly. Though, however, the number of those who cultivate mathematics has not increased in proportion to that of literary men in general, we cannot believe that it has diminished; and the recent performances of our contemporaries in every other branch of science and of literature are, surely, sufficient to vindicate them from the charge of degeneracy, and to prove that the English nation still deserves the character which Milton gave to it nearly two hundred years ago, — that it still is “a nation not slow and dull, but of a quick, ingenious, and piercing spirit, acute to invent, subtle and sinewy to discourse, not beneath the reach of any point, the highest that human capacity can soar to*.”

We are not, indeed, disposed to deny that the increased number of accomplishments, which the diffusion of information has rendered necessary to all who aspire to literary eminence, may have had some effect in checking the pursuit of studies which require much time and attention for their successful cultivation: but this cause is in a great measure counteracted by corresponding improvements in the art of communicating knowledge; and, as its operation is not confined to this country, it can have no influence in producing the circumstances in which England differs from the nations of the continent, and which must be explained by causes comprehended within the same limits as themselves. In seeking for causes of this nature, those which most readily occur to us are, — the peculiar methods by which the study of mathematics is encouraged in our universities, — and our adherence to a system of notation different from that which has been adopted by the rest of Europe. On the first of these subjects, as it does not immediately relate to the work under our consideration, we shall not at present enlarge, but we may perhaps take some future opportunity of discussing it. The respective advantages, however, of the English and foreign notations, are nearly connected both with the matter of Mr. Woodhouse's book and with its author. In his earliest publication, he was the assertor of the superiority of the foreign over the English notation; and of a truth much more important, though little noticed by English mathematicians, that the question concerning notation is not a trifling inquiry, but that the greatest improvements in science might be expected to be derived from the adoption of commodious methods of representing quantity. These positions he has either enforced by argument, or illustrated by examples, in all his subsequent writings; and he could scarcely have found,

* *Areopagitica*, a speech for the liberty of unlicensed printing.

in the whole circle of science, a stronger confirmation of his opinions than in the Calculus of Variations. Our writers on Fluxions have indeed, as he observes, devoted part of their attention to the solution of problems of the class to which that calculus is principally applicable: but, in consequence of their rejection of the improvements introduced into its theory and notation by Euler and La Grange, their methods are so limited in their application, and established by methods so deficient in clearness, universality, and evidence, that their conclusions, if seldom erroneous, are almost always wanting in generality; and their formulæ, though enabling them to arrive at the solution of the simplest class of isoperimetrical problems, are totally incompetent to conduct them to the more complex and less obvious, though not less interesting or less important results, which have crowned the labours of foreign geometers.

Waring, it is true, whose acquaintance with the writings of foreign mathematicians was extensive and profound, was on the one hand so unwilling to adopt any innovation in notation, and on the other so sensible of the imperfect manner in which isoperimetrical problems can be treated without such innovation, that he has left the subject altogether untouched; though his "*Meditationes Analyticae*" would, but for this omission, have been the most complete collection of all that relates to the differential calculus, in existence at the time of its publication.

When we first saw Mr. Woodhouse's "*Principles of Analytical Calculation*," (published in 1803, and which, we regret to say, passed unnoticed in our pages,) we were led to expect, by a passage in the preface, that the Calculus of Variations would be treated in the course of the work; and we were the more disappointed at finding ourselves mistaken, because, in the "*Théorie des Fonctions Analytiques*," whence the plan of the "*Principles of Analytical Calculation*" appears to have been taken, La Grange has delivered the Theory of Variations with the simplicity and generality which characterize the performances of that consummate analyst.

That this omission, however, was not made inconsiderately, the present treatise affords sufficient evidence; since its plan, though eminently judicious with regard to the peculiar subject on which it treats, would not have been equally suitable to a work, of which the object was to establish the doctrine of Fluxions on principles less objectionable than those to which it had formerly been referred. This plan will serve to give our readers some idea of the production which we are considering, and we shall therefore lay it before them in the words of the author. After some remarks on the systems of his predecessors;

Such

‘ Such (says he,) are, in my opinion, the defects of existing methods; still, however, I have not composed a treatise on the subject, by merely remedying them, that is by inserting formulæ of sufficient extent, and by more fully explaining and illustrating their principles. But, on a novel plan, I have combined the historical progress with the scientific developement of the subject; and endeavoured to lay down and inculcate the principles of the calculus, whilst I traced its gradual and successive improvements.

‘ If this has been effected, which I think it has, in a compass not very wide of that which a strictly scientific treatise would have required, the only serious objection against the present plan is, in part, obviated. For, there is little doubt, the student’s curiosity and attention will be more excited and sustained, when he finds history blended with science, and the demonstration of formulæ accompanied with the object and the causes of their invention, than by a mere analytical exposition of the principles of the subject.

‘ The plan, perhaps, would not suit any other department of science, so well as it does this; which is limited in its extent, and has had but few though eminent cultivators.’

Although Mr. W. has, in general, been as successful in the execution of his work as in its design, that part of it which is occupied in the establishment of principles betrays one omission which we observe with surprise and regret. After having investigated the equation which determines the conditions necessary for an integral function to be a maximum or a minimum, (when it is capable of either,) it would have been proper to have explained the method of distinguishing the maximum from the minimum; and we are the more surprised at a deficiency in this respect, because that method forms one of the most important uses of that part of the formula for $\delta \int V dx$ which is the exclusive invention of La Grange.

The treatise concludes with the application of the formulæ previously investigated to the solution of problems; of which many will be perfectly new to the English reader, and incapable of solution by the methods which English mathematicians have hitherto delivered. On one of them we have to make some observations, which appear to have escaped Mr. Woodhouse and other writers of eminence.

The problem to which we allude is taken from Euler, who proposes it in these words: “*Sit nunc propositum inter omnes curvas*

A M., determinare eam in qua $\int \frac{d^2 y}{ds^2}$ sit maximum vel minimum.”

(Here y represents the ordinate and s the arc of the curve.) The conclusion which he obtains, by the application of previously demonstrated formulæ, is that the curve required is a straight line.

Now in a straight line $d^2 y$ is $= 0$, and consequently $\int \frac{d^2 y}{ds^2} = 0$,

or an arbitrary constant quantity; and as this constant quantity can be assumed of any magnitude, positive or negative, no straight line will make the proposed integral a maximum or a minimum. If it be objected that the integral is to begin at the beginning of the curve, and that therefore the constant quantity is necessarily $= 0$, and consequently the integral (in the straight line) also $= 0$, we answer that, since, for any arc of a curve convex to the axis, $\frac{d^2 y}{ds^2}$ is positive and negative for any arc of a concave curve, and therefore the integral is positive or negative in the same cases, it appears that this integral is neither a maximum nor a minimum when it is $= 0$.

Having shewn, *à posteriori*, that the result is erroneous, we shall endeavour to point out the origin of the error.

The equation which determines the relation between x and y , when $\int V dx$ is a maximum or a minimum, is

$$N - \frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d^2 Q}{dx^2} - \&c. = 0 \text{ (where}$$

$$dV = M dx + N dy + P dp + Q dq + \&c.$$

$dy = p dx$, $dp = q dx$, &c.) Now it has been proved by Euler, in the treatise "*de Doctrinâ Variationum*," annexed to his "*Institutiones Calculi Integralis* *," that, when

$\int V dx$ is integrable, $N - \frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d^2 Q}{dx^2}$, &c. is necessarily $= 0$; and it appears from this, that whenever $V dx$ is integrable, independently of any relation between x and y , no relation is established between these variables by the equation

$N - \frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d^2 Q}{dx^2} - \&c. = 0$: which is of the kind called by mathematicians *identic*, and which is as far from determining any relation between the quantities which it involves, as is the equation $x + y = y + x$.

In the problem which we are considering, since $d^2 y = dp dx$, and $ds = \sqrt{1+p^2} dx$, $\frac{d^2 y}{ds^2} = \frac{dp}{\sqrt{1+p^2}}$ which is obviously integrable, independently of any relation between x and y ; and, since $\frac{dp}{\sqrt{1+p^2}} = \frac{q dx}{\sqrt{1+p^2}}$, $M = 0$, $N = 0$, $P = -$

$$\frac{pq}{(1+p^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}, \quad Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+p^2}}; \text{ therefore, } \frac{dQ}{dx} = - \frac{pq}{(1+p^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \\ = P. \text{ Therefore } \frac{d^2 Q}{dx^2} = \frac{dP}{dx}, \text{ and, consequently,}$$

* See La Grange, *Fonctions Analytiques*, No. 171. p. 203, first edit.
N—

$N - \frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d^2Q}{dx^2} - \&c.$ is $= 0$, whatever function y may be of x , or indeed whether it be a function of x or not. Mr. Woodhouse's result (which does not differ essentially from that of Euler,) is obtained by integrating the equation— $\frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d^2Q}{dx^2} = 0$, whence he deduces $P = \frac{dQ}{dx} + c$. Now, when P is identically $= \frac{dQ}{dx}$, c is necessarily $= 0$; whence his equation $\frac{q}{\sqrt{1+p^2}} = \frac{q}{\sqrt{1+p^2}} + cp + 'c$ is equivalent to $'c = 0$, and the result $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-'c}{c}$ to $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{0}{0}$, which leaves the relation between x and y perfectly undetermined.

Of the style of the preface, and of those parts of the work of which the language is not symbolical, we observe with pleasure that it is not marked by any of those efforts to display ornamented writing which occurred in Mr. Woodhouse's early productions; and which, though sometimes successful, are certainly misplaced in a scientific treatise, in which perspicuity and simplicity are the only excellences of composition that can properly be attempted. — The numerous and accurate references, which are made to the original sources of information on the subject of the work, will be found highly useful by those who wish to acquire a profound acquaintance with it. On this head, we subjoin the passage with which the author concludes his preface:

'Although I am not aware of having omitted any thing that is requisite to the full explanation of the subject, yet I cannot flatter myself that it will be thoroughly understood from this work alone. For, in general it may be laid down as true, that no doctrine, of novelty and intricacy, can be completely taught by a single treatise. It seems to be indispensably necessary for the student, that the subject should be put under several points of view: that if not apprehended under one, it may be under another. For this reason, though not wanting an author's partiality for his own performance, I recommend the perusal of those works to which frequent reference is made in the following pages.'

We perfectly acquiesce in the justice of this remark, which does equal credit to the author's judgment and to his modesty: but we will venture to affirm that no single work exists, from which more complete information on the subject can be obtained than from the present; and that the calculus of variations no longer forms an exception to the triumphant assertion of Johnson, who concluded a panegyric on the copiousness of

English literature by declaring that "he who searches after mathematical knowledge may busy himself among his own countrymen, and find one or other of them able to instruct him in every part of those abstruse sciences."

ART. VI. *Narrative of the Operations of a Detachment in an Expedition to Candy*, in the island of Ceylon, in the Year 1804; with some Observations on the previous Campaign; and on the Nature of Candian Warfare, &c. &c. By Major Johnston, of the 3d Ceylon Regiment, then Captain Commandant of the Detachment. 8vo. pp. 138. 6s. Boards. Baldwin. 1810.

THE public have of late years been presented with two descriptions of the island of Ceylon, both of considerable length; we mean those of Captain Percival, and of the Reverend James Cordiner*. These, however, may properly be termed geographical and statistical accounts of the island, while the object of the present volume is entirely military. Its author, confining himself to that department, and writing with the benefit of a twelve years' residence in Ceylon, will be found to convey much information which had escaped his predecessors, and to be particularly happy in the delineation of the peculiar character of Candian warfare. The specific event, which gave rise to the present publication, took place in the autumn of 1804, at a time when Major Johnston was Commandant of the remote position of Baticolo, and was led, by his interpretation of orders from head-quarters, to advance into the heart of the enemy's territory. A plan had indeed been formed to penetrate from the coast, with our whole force, to the hostile capital, and to take signal vengeance for the infamous massacre of our countrymen in the preceding year under the command of Major Davie. Our troops were to set out from six different positions, and to proceed to Candy in as many distinct columns. All were eager for the enterprize; and the General, on visiting the several stations, made the most explicit and spirited arrangements with the respective commanding officers. On his return, however, to head-quarters, it was found advisable to desist from the execution of the plan as at first proposed, and to confine the march of the columns to partial incursions into the enemy's territory. Unfortunately, the quarter of the island through which Major Johnston was to march being little known to Europeans, the definition of limits in the General's dispatches was necessarily inexplicit; and the Major's mind being wholly impressed with the much desired enter-

* See M.R. Vol. 42. N.S. p. 113, 243. and Vol. 58. p. 113.

prize against Candy, the new orders never appeared to him in the light of a renunciation of that project. He considered them merely as a modification of his former instructions, in respect to a change of route and day of march; and not having time for asking and receiving explanations, he advanced at once into the interior, where he had the mortification of finding himself at the head of an unsupported detachment, in the midst of enemies. Literal copies of the orders are given; (p. 39. and 43.) and we leave it to those among Major Johnston's readers who consider the discussion as of importance, to decide between him and the General: feeling, on our own part, no desire to scrutinize a point in which so much zeal was displayed by both, and which is a military, not literary question*.

Before he enters on the details of the expedition, Major Johnston offers a series of observations on the national habits of the Candians, and on the character of their warfare. He appears to be so much master of the subject, and the information conveyed seems to us of so much importance, that we shall extract as copiously from this part of the book as our limits will permit. After having remarked that the part of Ceylon which is subject to Europeans comprehends the whole sea-coast, and encircles the King of Candy's territories like a belt, varying in breadth from ten to thirty miles, he thus proceeds:

'Our knowledge of the interior of Ceylon is still extremely imperfect. The ruggedness of the country, and the insalubrity of the climate at any distance from the coast, have hitherto prevented our obtaining an accurate survey even of those parts in the interior under our own immediate controul. Of those in possession of the Candians, consisting principally of steep and lofty mountains, in many places covered with impenetrable forests, still less is known. Well aware that our ignorance of their passes and defiles forms one of the best safeguards of their independence, the rulers of the Candian nation take all possible care to prevent our acquiring information on this subject. They watch the ingress and egress of their territory with unremitting vigilance. This is the less difficult, as the access is by paths along which two men can seldom go abreast. In these paths gates are fixed, and guards stationed to prevent the entrance of strangers, and to examine all passengers. Few Europeans, even in time of peace, venture to approach these barriers; and the continued detention of Major Davie, since the unfortunate fate of his detachment, notwithstanding the unwearied exertions of Governor North

* The result is thus stated by the author himself: 'It appeared necessary that an affair attended with such serious consequences should undergo investigation, and I was ordered round to Columbo, where a Court of Inquiry was held upon my conduct. The decision of the Court w. s, that I had not disobeyed my orders in going to Candy.'

and General Maitland to effect his liberation, is an example of the extreme difficulty of escape.

‘ It does not appear that the Portuguese and Dutch armies, which at different times penetrated the interior, were accompanied by men of science capable of taking topographical surveys of the country. The accounts which remain of their campaigns abound, indeed, in details of battles and marches, describing the sufferings and privations of their troops ; but convey no topographical information.

The government of Candy, like most eastern governments, is purely despotic. The standing army consists of a few hundred men, chiefly mercenaries, who are generally stationed about the king's person. They are armed with muskets, taken at different times or purchased from their European invaders. Although they possess little, if any, of what is considered discipline in Europe, yet the Candians have acquired, in their frequent conflicts with the Portuguese and Dutch, a considerable knowledge and dexterity in that species of warfare, which is best suited to the nature of the country, and the disposition of the inhabitants. Conscious of their inability to resist the regular attack of European troops, and aware of the advantages they possess in being familiar with the country, and inured to the climate, they avoid close combat, preferring an irregular and desultory warfare. They harass the enemy in his march, hanging on his flanks, cutting off his supplies, interrupting the communication between his divisions, and occupying the heights which command the passes, from whence they fire in perfect security from behind rocks or trees. They aim principally at the Coolies, who carry the ammunition and provisions, well knowing that, without these, a regular force can make but little progress. To dislodge them from these heights is a task of extreme difficulty, as the paths leading to them are mostly on the opposite sides of the mountains, and only known to the inhabitants.

‘ They are accustomed to impede the march of hostile troops by felling, and placing as abattis, large trees across the defiles. In narrow passes, where they cannot be avoided, this contrivance presents a most serious obstacle to the march of troops ; for cutting up and removing a large tree is not the business of a moment. One of their maxims is, seldom to press closely an enemy marching into their country ; being certain that the diseases incident to Europeans in that climate, and the want of provisions, will soon oblige him to fall back ; the farther he advances, the better he promotes their scheme of defence, as they can thus throw more numerous impediments in the way of his return. In the mean time, they are busily employed in blocking up the roads through which they think it most probable that he will attempt to retreat ; when encumbered by a long train of sick and wounded, exhausted by fatigue and want of provisions, and probably destitute of ammunition, (which frequently happens from desertion of the Coolies,) then it is, and then only, that they attack him, exerting all their energies and skill to harass and cut off his retreat. What makes the situation of the troops, under those circumstances, still more distressing, is, that every man who falls into the hands of the enemy is certain of immediate death. Nor does the inhuman practice

arise

arise from thirst of blood, or the gratification of revenge : it is a consequence of the reward offered by the King of Candy for the heads of his enemies, and of the desire of affording proofs of personal courage. The Candians will even decapitate their own countrymen when killed in action, and carry the heads to their chiefs, as belonging to the enemy, in order to obtain this reward and distinction. I had frequent opportunities of ascertaining this fact. On surprising their posts at night, which we often effected without the loss of a man, and afterwards passing over the ground, we invariably found their slain without heads.

‘ The nobles hold their lands by tenure of service, and are obliged, when called upon, to join the king, at the head of a third of their vassals, should that number be required. Each village has its chief, with several inferior officers in proportion to its size. The chief, on receiving an order from his *dessane*, or lord, summons every third, fourth, or fifth man, according to the nature of his instructions, and proceeds with his feudatory levies to the place of rendezvous. Each soldier is provided with a musket, and carries with him fifteen days’ provisions, and a small cooking vessel. A few are armed with bows and arrows. A leaf of the talipot tree, [forming] an extensive umbrella, serves to protect him from the heat of the sun during the day ; and two men, by placing the broad end of their leaves together, may form a tent that will completely defend them against the rains or dews, by night. The provisions of the Candian are equally portable with his tent. Although, in most parts of the continent in India, rice forms the principle article of food amongst all ranks of natives, in Ceylon, and particularly in the interior of the island, it is reserved for the higher classes, and is a luxury of which the lowest order of the people seldom partake. The chief food of the poorer sort is a grain that grows on the hills, with little cultivation, and without watering. This, together with a root dug from the bottom of the tanks, and a decoction of the bark of a tree found in abundance in the forests, constitutes their principal means of support. Men accustomed to such diet cannot be supposed to require many luxuries in the field. Two or three cocoa nuts, a few cakes, made of the grain I have just described, and a small quantity of rice, compose the whole of the soldier’s stock for the campaign. His other wants he is certain of being always able to supply. Thus equipped, the Candian soldier follows his chief, to whom he is accustomed to pay the most implicit obedience. He crawls through the paths in the woods, for the purpose of commanding the roads through which the hostile troops must pass, or climbs the mountains, and places himself behind a rock, or a tree, patiently to await the enemy’s approach. At the end of fifteen days he is relieved by a fresh requisition from the village ; and thus the army is constantly supplied with fresh troops, totally unencumbered, the party relieved always carrying home their sick and wounded companions. Another great advantage attending this system of warfare is, that the soldier will more cheerfully encounter fatigues and privations, which he knows are to be of short continuance, and must terminate in a certain fixed period. He is also supported by the hope of shortly returning to his village, and recounting his exploits.

‘ Such

' Such a system could only answer in a country like that which I have been describing, where the theatre of war is almost always within certain limits, so that whatever be the fortune of the contest, the soldier is seldom removed above two, and never more than four days march from his own abode. Nor is it necessary to furnish those returning home with escorts, as they have little to fear from the slow and unwieldy movements of their European enemies, whom they can at all times avoid by taking a circuitous route. A Candian army, thus unencumbered by sick and baggage, and being perfect masters of their intricate paths and passes, is enabled to move with much more rapidity than regular troops, strangers to the country, and encumbered as they usually are with artillery, ammunition, baggage, provisions, and frequently a long train of sick and wounded, can possibly do.'

The occupancy of the coast of Ceylon by the Portuguese commenced early in the sixteenth century, and continued during one hundred and forty years. Their power was shaken to its foundation by the loss of an army, in consequence of the treachery of four Ceylonese officers, whom they had imprudently raised to the rank of General; a memorable lesson, adds Major Johnston, to all Europeans, never to repose unlimited confidence in the natives of Ceylon. It was in the year 1658 that the Portuguese were finally vanquished by the Dutch, whose dominion in the island lasted nearly as long as that of their predecessors. Both nations made reiterated attempts to subjugate the kingdom of Candy, but in vain; their armies being either slowly wasted by skirmishes, or cut off by the more rapid progress of disease. The Portuguese, however, had they been well governed, and supported from home, were the better fitted of the two to obtain success in this tropical warfare. Born in a latitude of considerable heat, and accustomed to simple diet, their constitutions received less injury from fatigue under the rays of a vertical sun: but, on the other hand, the ample revenue of the Dutch East India Company enabled them to bring a larger force to bear against their Candian adversaries. This was particularly exemplified in the last great war which they waged, (1763,) in which they assembled an army of 8000 men, and obtained possession of the capital: but, after having remained there during nine months, they found their numbers so dreadfully reduced by disease as to leave them no alternative but that of a precipitate retreat to the coast.— Having noticed the surrender of the Dutch possessions in Ceylon to the English in 1796, Major Johnston gives an account of the possession of Candy by our army in 1803, and of the melancholy fate which befel the detachment left behind under the command of Major Davie. These affecting details being sufficiently known, we pass over that part of the author's nar-

rative which relates to particular occurrences, and prefer some selections from his general observations :

‘ The dangers and difficulties of war in Candy have by no means diminished since Ceylon fell into our hands. The want of supplies in the interior renders it indispensable for an invading army to carry provisions, as well as stores, along with it. The carriage of Coolies, or litters for the sick and wounded, and camp equipage, also requires the addition of an almost incredible number of followers. It has been found that, at the lowest computation, a detachment properly equipped requires, even for the short period of fifteen days, at the rate of four Coolies for each soldier ; so that, for a detachment of 600 men, the followers alone will amount to 2,400, requiring daily provision for 3000 mouths. The Coolies have the utmost aversion to a Candian campaign ; to collect any number of them is consequently attended with difficulties and delay, and it can only be done by pressing. The instant it is known in any of the districts that the native chief has received orders to *seize*, as they not improperly term it, a certain number of Coolies, the villages are deserted by the lower class of the inhabitants, who, to avoid the police officers, either conceal themselves in the forests, or take refuge in the Candian territories. After considerable delays the chief seldom succeeds in procuring above half the number required ; and thus the advantages which we seem at first sight to enjoy over the enemy, of having always a considerable disciplined force, ready to march at a moment's notice, are completely lost from the impossibility of any prompt movement. By the flight of the Coolies, intimation of our design is soon conveyed to the Candian government, and the necessary orders immediately issued for calling out the inhabitants, which orders are punctually complied with, as well from the dread of the punishment of disobedience, as from the people being interested in the defence of their country. Long before our detachments can be equipped, the enemy is arrayed in force ready to receive them.

‘ The aversion of the natives to serve as Coolies in our armies is founded on very obvious reasons. The burdens which they are obliged to carry are heavy, and their progress consequently slow. They are frequently exposed to a galling fire, doubtful of being taken care of, if wounded, and certain of being put to death if made prisoners ; their post is more dangerous than that of the fighting part of the army ; while they are not, like the soldiers, buoyed up by the prospect of any military advantage or preferment, or excited by the stimulus of fame. It cannot, therefore, be surprising that the Cingalese, naturally timid, and rendered indolent by their climate and mode of living, should use every effort in their power to avoid being impressed on such a service, or that they should, when forced into it, afterwards desert. This is a frequent occurrence, and is often attended with serious consequences. They are also apt, without any intention of escaping from the army, when unexpectedly attacked, from the mere impulse of fear, to throw down their loads, and rush into the woods to conceal themselves. This is a practice which neither threats nor intreaties can check ; but their design being simply

to elude the danger of the moment, their head man generally succeeds in rallying them as soon as the firing ceases. This dispersion of the Coolies for a time entirely stops the line of march, as it would be impossible to move forward without them, but by abandoning the sick, the wounded, and the stores to the enemy. These disasters happen mostly in defiles; and the enemy, well knowing the disposition of our Coolies, generally selects such places for attacking them.'—

'Thus defended by their climate, their mountains, and their forests, the Candians, by adhering steadily to the same mode of warfare, have been enabled to resist the incursions of their several European invaders for three centuries. Although successively attacked by the Portuguese, Dutch, and English, when in the zenith of their eastern conquests, and repeatedly driven from their capital, they are now in as complete possession of the interior of their country, and govern it as independently of any European influence, as at any period of their history since the first invasion of their coast.

'The Candians, flushed with their successes, and knowing that our forts on the coast were now weakly garrisoned, poured down from their mountains in the months of August and September, in the hope of utterly expelling us from the island. And in this attempt they were joined by the native inhabitants of our own settlements, who rose, as of one accord, to accelerate our expulsion. This fact affords a strong and convincing proof that, when we lose the power of the sword, to entertain any hope of preserving India through the affection of the natives would be building on the most unstable foundation. So strong is their attachment to their ancient governments, laws, language, manners, and religious opinions, that three centuries of European domination have not diminished its force. But in leaving their fastnesses, the Candians relinquished those advantages which alone made them formidable; and reinforcements arriving most seasonably to our army from the Cape of Good Hope and Bengal, their efforts were completely defeated.'

The next part of Major Johnston's publication consists of a journal of his expedition. He set out from Batticoló on the 20th September, 1804, at the head of three hundred men, European and native troops, accompanied by nearly twice as many Ceylonese, in the capacity of pioneers and carriers. Their track lay through a wild and almost desolate part of the island, noted as the asylum of the kings of Candy when driven from their capital; and partly inhabited by the Bédas or Vedas, a singular and savage tribe, living nearly in a state of nature, and holding no intercourse with the other nations. At one time, the detachment marched sixty miles without seeing either a dwelling or a human being; and without discovering any thing except the paths through the forests and round the bases of the mountains, to suggest a belief that the quarter had ever been peopled. The weather during the day was close and sultry, the circulation of the air being impeded by the forests;

the nights, on the contrary, were foggy and cold: which vicissitudes soon began to shew their pernicious effects on the health of our troops. As they advanced into the interior, they found the face of the country gradually improve, the slopes of the hills being cleared, and the vallies, in general, cultivated. The natives now began to collect in parties to oppose the detachment, and their stations on the sides of the mountains were rendered conspicuous at night by the fires which they kindled. Their hostility, however, was not formidable; since, though they ventured at times to hang on the flanks of the detachment, they regularly took to their heels when the troops fired at them. The great cause of delay and fatigue to our men consisted in the narrowness and ruggedness of the paths: but, in the course of a fortnight, by unwearied perseverance, the Major made good his way to the neighbourhood of the capital.

By this time, the Candians had assembled in thousands, and discovered their confidence in cutting off our troops by nocturnal shouts, which were observed to begin among the bodies stationed nearest to our detachment, and to be re-echoed by more distant crowds on the adjoining hills. In this part of the expedition, an opportunity occurred for shewing how much the success of Candian warfare is dependent on localities. The path for the troops running along the banks of the great river, and being commanded by a battery on the opposite side, which it was indispensably necessary to carry, a raft was prepared: but being made of iron wood, the only material within reach, it was found unserviceable. In the midst of the embarrassment produced by this disappointment, a centinel called out that he saw a boat crossing the river about three quarters of a mile farther up. Lieutenant Vincent, a spirited officer, was immediately dispatched with the British part of the detachment to seize it at all hazards: but, on reaching the spot, they found that the Candians had conveyed it to the opposite bank. Immediately, two of our gallant soldiers swam over under the protection of the fire of the party, and brought back the boat; after which the lieutenant and his men crossing the river, and marching rapidly towards the battery, the assembled multitude of the enemy fled at their approach. The Candians, formidable in their fastnesses, are so feeble in close combat, that, in a quarter of an hour, the whole of the mass which had lined the banks of the river were scattered by a handful of assailants, and the battery was seized, with the loss on our part of only two men wounded.

Major Johnston's detachment now entered the capital, and found it, as on a former occasion, entirely deserted. The natives, however, remained in great force in the immediate neighbourhood;

bourhood; and the Major was exceedingly mortified to find none of our other columns on the spot which he considered as the point of junction for the various corps of our army. His situation was not such as to admit of protracting his stay in Candy without the most imminent danger, the troops being extremely fatigued by a march of two hundred miles, and the stock of provisions and ammunition being greatly reduced. The rains also were setting in with considerable violence, and the rivers were swelling rapidly. Under these circumstances, he ventured to remain forty-eight hours in Candy: but, at the expiration of that time, none of the expected divisions appearing, he felt that farther delay would be fatal, and began his retreat on the morning of the 9th of October. Aware that the road by which he advanced must have been rendered impracticable, he set out on the path leading to Trincomalé, a settlement distant from Candy above one hundred and forty-miles. Things now wore a gloomy aspect; the sick and wounded were numerous; the men in health were obliged to carry their provisions on their backs; and the enemy, emboldened by our retrograde movement, had assembled in great numbers to blockade the passes and lay trees across the paths. The safety of our troops was to be found only in assuming a bold countenance, and in hazarding attacks whenever they were able to reach the enemy. In these they were successful, but at the expence of a progressive diminution of their numbers, and a daily increase of the train of wounded, among whom they now reckoned the gallant Lieutenant Vincent. The weather likewise added its horrors to those of a vindictive enemy; our men being exposed without protection to a scorching sun during the morning till two o'clock, and in the afternoon and night to incessant rain. They passed the day in a continued skirmish, and at night were glad when they could get a stone or log of wood to support their heads from the ground. The natives, who acted as coolies or carriers, became so fatigued that it was found necessary to relieve them from every other burden than that of the sick and wounded; the most reduced of whom were carried along on cloths fastened to poles, while others proceeded by leaning on their less exhausted comrades. On the fifth day of this disastrous march, the Candians attacked the line both in front and rear, the consequence of which was a separation of the van from the main body. Our troops had still strength to repulse them, and to cause them a signal loss: but the intricacy of the paths preventing for some days the junction of the van and centre, it was impossible to carry off all our wounded; and Lieutenant Vincent was unhappily among the number who were abandoned.

doned to the merciless pursuers. At last, as the detachment began to extricate itself from the heart of the enemy's country, the molestation became less considerable; and on the 19th of October a friendly band in the vicinity of Trincomalé received their emaciated and debilitated fellow-soldiers.

Having brought his recital to a close, Major Johnston proceeds to the more cheering topic of laying down rules for improvements in the management of our affairs in Ceylon. The first subject of his recommendation is the importance of acquiring the language of the natives. He shews at great length how much our affairs, both civil and military, may suffer from the perfidy of interpreters; and he advises that government should make two new regulations in regard to our troops in Ceylon: first, that the station should be permanent to the officers who enter on it, as is the case respectively in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay; and next, that a knowledge of the language should be an indispensable requisite to promotion. 'Under such a plan,' he says, 'no officer could arrive at an important command without being thoroughly acquainted with the language and customs of the country; and the General would then find among his officers, in whose honour he could confide, every species of local knowledge, instead of being obliged to seek for it amongst Modiliars, interpreters, and native orderlies.'

The next topic on which Major Johnston enlarges is the necessity of altering the clothes of our troops in Ceylon. The great objects in their dress, after the care of health, should be celerity of movement, and facility of approaching the enemy unperceived, so as to have a chance of taking him by surprise. The Candian soldier has no other covering than a cloth, wrapped round his loins, in the fold of which is deposited a cocoa-nut-shell containing his powder and ball. They may accordingly hover around our troops to the number of hundreds, without being distinguished among the trees; while the red jackets, white belts, bright arms, and shining brass plates of our men, never fail to render them conspicuous from a distance. The change which the author recommends, in regard to arms, is to substitute for the common musket a light one, with a barrel stained like a rifle; and as to dress, he suggests the adoption of a green or gray jacket and trowsers, black belts, and a light brown hat.

Another important point is the carriage of our baggage and stores; the difficulty of which has hitherto formed the great embarrassment of Candian warfare. Elephants, our great resource in other parts of India, are ill fitted for the narrow passages of Ceylon; so that the alternative lies between bullocks and coolies,

ebolia, or native carriers. In the case of a large detachment and a protracted expedition, Major Johnston recommends bullocks : but for rapid movements he thinks that recourse should always be had to coolies, a class deserving, on the score both of humanity and policy, greater attention than they have hitherto received at our hands.—In a subsequent passage, in which he treats of ‘Guides,’ the Major shews himself an advocate for conducting war on the Candians by night-attacks, and very clearly proves how little fitted our present guides are for that difficult and hazardous kind of operation. Notwithstanding all his military ardour, he is disposed to acknowledge that it is much better to expend money for the maintenance of our influence at the court of Candy, than to have recourse to the destructive alternative of hostilities ; an opinion in which he will be joined by those who are aware of the miserable mortality, which the climate of the interior of Ceylon produces among our countrymen. With an extract illustrative of this melancholy truth, we shall close our review of Major Johnston’s valuable publication. It occurs in page 93.

‘The following instances are convincing proofs of the insalubrity of the interior of Ceylon. On the 13th of March, 1803, the grenadier company of the 65th, under Capt. Bullock, consisting of 3 officers and 75 men, marched from Columbo for Cattadinia, a small post in the interior. At the end of the month, without any loss by the enemy, the whole fell victims to the climate, excepting Lieut. Hutchins and two privates. They were all robust young men, from 18 to 23 years of age, and had only landed from the Cape of Good Hope early in November. On the 11th of April, 400 men of the 51st regiment appeared under arms at Columbo, on their arrival from Candy. In little more than two months, 300 of them were buried, having laid the foundation of disease in the interior.’

We have said that we decline to enter on a discussion of the propriety of Major Johnston’s expedition, considered with reference to his orders : but we must observe that, being undertaken, the conduct of it seems to have been as creditable to him in a *military* as the account of it is in a *literary* point of view.

ART. VII. *The Curse of Kebama*: by Robert Southey. 4to. pp. 376. 11. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

THROUGHOUT our literary career, we cannot recollect a more favourable opportunity than the present for a full discharge of our critical duty. We are, indeed, bound now to make a firm stand for the purity of our poetic taste against this last and most desperate assault ; conducted, as it is, by a writer of considerable

considerable reputation, and unquestionably of considerable abilities. If this poem were to be tolerated, all things after it may demand impunity; and it will be vain to contend hereafter for any one established rule of poetry, as to design and subject, as to character and incident, as to language and versification. We may return at once to the rude hymn in honour of Bacchus, and indite strains adapted to the recitation of rustics in the season of the vintage,—

"Quæ canerent agerentque peruncti facibus ora."

It shall be our plan to establish these points, we hope, beyond reasonable controversy, by a complete analysis of the twenty-four sections (as they may truly be called) of this portentous work, and by ample quotations, interspersed with remarks; in which we shall endeavour to withhold no praise that can fairly be claimed, and no censure that is obviously deserved.

In a very awkward imitation of a Greek proverb, Mr. Southey has made a motto for his poem, which he thus translates: 'Curses are like young chicken, they always come home to roost.' This shall be explained hereafter: for the present, we will only observe that, if the barbarous abbreviation of the fictitious Greek author's name, *τὸ Γουλιὰ τὸ Μήτ*, may be filled up thus, *τὸ Γουλιέλμος τὸ Μήτις*, we wish the poet better advice than he has here received from his friend "*William the Counsellor*."

The hinge on which the plan turns is thus brought to sight in the preface:

'In the religion of the Hindoos, which of all false religions is the most monstrous in its fables, and the most fatal in its effects, there is one remarkable peculiarity. Prayers, penances, and sacrifices, are supposed to possess an inherent and actual value, in no degree depending upon the disposition or motive of the person who performs them. They are drafts upon Heaven, for which the Gods cannot refuse payment. The worst men, bent upon the worst designs, have in this manner obtained power which has made them formidable to the Supreme Deities themselves, and rendered an Avatar, or Incarnation of Veeshnoo the Preserver, necessary. This belief is the foundation of the following poem.'

Mr. S. proceeds to obviate (can he imagine, successfully?) some objections to a tale founded on the Hindoo mythology. We beg the attention of our readers to the words in italics:

'No figures can be imagined *more anti-picturesque, and less poetical*, than the mythological personages of the Bramins. *This deformity was easily kept out of sight*:—their hundred hands are but a clumsy personification of power; their numerous heads only a gross image of divinity, "whose countenance," as the Bhagvat-Geeta expresses it, "is turned

turned on every side." To the other obvious objection, that the religion of Hindostan is not generally known enough to supply *fit machinery for an English poem*, I can only answer, that, if every allusion to it throughout the work is not sufficiently self-explained to render the passage intelligible, there is a want of skill in the poet. Even those readers who should be wholly unacquainted with the writings of our learned Orientalists, will find all the preliminary knowledge that can be needful *, in the brief explanation of mythological names prefixed to the Poem.

This explanation we shall transcribe; only premising that we are at a loss to conceive what Mr. S. means by the Mythology of the Hindoos forming the *machinery* of his poem, when in fact it forms the *substance* of it; and excepting his heroine (Kailyal,) we have not a single human character in the book: her father, Ladurlad, having a curse laid on him by Kehama, (the wicked Rajah, who has gained supernatural power by the means to which we have above alluded,) which has raised him far above the qualities, as well as degraded him below the condition, of mortality. — A more extraordinary *Dramatis Personæ* than the subjoined, and more wonderful places for the scene of the several acts of the piece, we believe were never submitted to our view: but the transcript will save the necessity of much explanation as we proceed; and, after we have hurried the spectator into the business of the performance, the rapidity of the succeeding events will thus be cleared from some confusion. — We omit the account of the Trinity of the Brahmans, Brama, Veeshnoo, and Seeva, (only observing that the last is the first in this poem,) and refer chiefly to the less familiar acquaintance of our countrymen:

‘ Indra, God of the Elements. The Swerga, his Paradise, one of the Hindoo heavens. Yamen, Lord of Hell, and Judge of the Dead. Padalon, Hell under the Earth, and, like the Earth, of an octagon shape; its eight gates are guarded by as many Gods. Marriataly, the Goddess who is chiefly worshipped by the lower casta. Pollear, or Ganesa, the Protector of Travellers. His statues are placed in the highways, and sometimes in a small lonely sanctuary, in the streets and fields. Casyapa, the Father of the Immortals. Devetas, the inferior Deities. Suras, Good Spirits. Asuras, Evil Spirits, or Devils. Glendoveers, the most beautiful of the Good Spirits, the Grindouvers of Sonnerat.’

The poem opens with the funeral of Arvalan, son of Kehama:

* Mr. S., however, has thought it ‘needful’ to instruct and amuse the reader with much postliminous knowledge in the shape of notes, containing long extracts from those learned Orientalists.

‘Ὡς ἐν’ ἀμφοτέρων τούτων ‘Ἐκτορος ἱπποδάμιον’

Iliad 24. line the last.

Mr. Southey takes up the tale where Homer left off; and, since all continuators have an established privilege of falling short of their original, the author has incalculable merit in so far transcending his predecessor, as we think we shall make it manifest that he has done *. To a less daring genius it would have seemed ominous to begin a poem with a funeral, particularly when every succeeding page is so printed as to wear the appearance of an *Epitaph*; so completely, indeed, as to suggest to an ignorant reader the preposterous notion that the measured irregularity of the lines was intended to produce such an effect; — that the poem, in a word, was written for the eye, and in a manner ingeniously emblematical of its speedy and certain destiny: every page, according to a design equally novel and striking, apparently exhibiting its own funereal inscription.

Arvalan is buried by torch-light, and the midnight procession is very splendid: multitudes of spectators crowd throughout the Imperial city, with numbers of Bramins and musical instruments, and shouts of

“ Arvalan ! Arvalan !
Arvalan ! Arvalan ! ”

His two wives, ‘ young Azla, and young Nealliny,’ are sacrificed, after the approved Indian fashion, on his funereal pile; and a large assortment of slaves, attending as fellow-victims on the ladies, have the honour of being burned in the same bonfire :

— ‘ round and round, in giddy wheel,
Intoxicate they roll and reel,
Till one by one whir’d in they fall,
And the devouring flames have swallowed all.’

In the second section, (called *the Curse*,) we are informed that Arvalan perished by a stake, and by a peasant’s arm, in an unsuccessful attempt to ravish the daughter of the said peasant. He had been ‘ spell-secur’d from disease, fire, sword, all common accidents of man :’ but the oak-stick proved fatal to him. *Triste lignum!* However, his almost-omnipotent Father revenges his death by laying the following terrific curse on the unfortunate rustic, who had saved his daughter’s chastity by so luckily *belabouring* its assailant :

* We cannot, on so fair an occasion, refrain from repeating an observation of Professor Porson, which is strictly in unison with our own sentiments : — “ Mr. Southey is indeed a wonderful writer ; his works will be read *when* Homer and Virgil are forgotten.”

' I charm thy life
 From the weapons of strife,
 From stone and from wood,
 From fire and from flood,
 From the serpent's tooth,
 And the beasts of blood :
 From Sickness I charm thee,
 And Time shall not harm thee,
 But Earth which is mine,
 Its fruits shall deny thee ;
 And Water shall hear me,
 And know thee and fly thee ;
 And the Winds shall not touch thee
 When they pass by thee,
 And the dews shall not wet thee,
 When they fall nigh thee :
 And thou shalt seek Death
 To release thee, in vain ;
 Thou shalt live in thy pain,
 While Kehama shall reign,
 With a fire in thy heart,
 And a fire in thy brain ;
 And Sleep shall obey me,
 And visit thee never,
 And the Curse shall be on thee
 For ever and ever.'

We shall only remark on this unrivalled anathema, that its author has really rendered the hitherto celebrated curse of Dr. Slop good for nothing; and that we shall in future read it without any emotion of terror : — we scarcely know whether it will appear ridiculous.

The Recovery, Section 3d, relieves us from some anxiety for the fate of Kailyal, who had been brought out by Kehama's guards to witness Arvalan's burial, and to await her own and her father's sentence. When Ladurlad is summoned to hear the dreadful denunciation cited above, the Guards seize Kailyal : but she flies for protection to the wooden statue of Mariataly, which stands very fortunately on the margin of the neighbouring stream ; and, clinging closely to it, while the guards struggle to force her from it, she drags away the statue, and the Goddess, a great piece of the bank, herself, and the guards, fall into the river ! — an effort which, we acknowledge, very properly prepared us for the future energies of this heroine.

Ladurlad, wandering forth ' with the fire in his heart, and the fire in his brain,' sees the wooden statue, (wood, by the way, seems to be the best friend of this family,) floating down the tide, with a woman's robe ' outswelling by its side.' We need not say that this is Kailyal; nor that, when Ladurlad rushes

towards the water, the water flies from this Indian Tantalus, and leaves him in a dry pathway to his daughter. He bears her to the bank, fainting, in course, but not lifeless; and there a tender scene ensues on her 'recovery.'

The Departure, Section 4th, describes a very pious conversation between the father and the daughter before they remove from their home, and also commemorates that removal:

"Away! Away!" she said—
And took her father's hand, *and like a child*
He follow'd where she led.'

In justice to Mr. Southey, and to our readers, we must quote the overture as well as the finale of this section. It is one of those passages, in which the author has an opportunity of displaying that peculiar trait of his genius, which we shall take some pains to exhibit in its best light as we proceed. May we encourage him to direct his principal attention to it! If by "*molle atque facetum*" he meant "the pathetic and the refined," we can at times sincerely congratulate Mr. S. on his deserving these epithets in no ordinary degree. His muse is then at home,—she is, assuredly, one of the "*gaudentes rure Camana*:"—

' Reclin'd beneath a Cocoa's feathery shade
Ladurlad lies,
And Kailyal on his lap her head hath laid,
To hide her streaming eyes.
The boatman, sailing on his easy way,
With envious eye beheld them where they lay;
For every herb and flower
Was fresh and fragrant with the early dew,
Sweet sung the birds in that delicious hour,
And the cool gale of morning as it blew,
Not yet subdued by day's increasing power,
Ruffling the surface of the silvery stream,
Swept o'er the moisten'd sand, and rais'd no shower.
Telling their tale of love,
The boatman thought they lay
At that lone hour, and who so blest as they!'

'*Rais'd no shower*' is the only objectionable expression in this passage.

The Separation, Section 5th, exhibits Ladurlad as taking the very unnatural resolution (if nature had any connection with the general character of this poem,) of deserting his daughter, while she is asleep; and leaving her to the assaults of another Arvalan, or to be devoured by wild-beasts, or to die with hunger, cold, and fear, in a midnight solitude. His assigned reasons

reasons for this extraordinary act are these: 1st, the very generous feeling that

—— ‘ he *must* bear
The burthen of his Curse, but why endure
The unavailing presence of her grief?’

and, 2d, the very plausible conjecture that

‘ She too, apart from him, *might* find relief.’

Accordingly, off he runs; and while she shrieks in a song after him,

—— ‘ *Selfish in misery*,
He heard the call, and faster did he fly.’

Since we are not told that insanity was any part of Ladurlad's curse, we must interpret this passage as a supplement to the former, and suppose that *selfishness* was a part of it; and we confess that our interest in his adventures was somewhat diminished by our discovering his ample possession of this amiable quality.

Poor Kailyal (for whom, however, by an unavoidable reaction of sentiment, we become doubly interested,) hears the *howl of a tiger*:—but that is a trifle:

‘ A nearer horror met the maiden's view,
For right before her a dim form appear'd,
A human form in that black night,
Distinctly shaped by its own lurid light,
Such light as the sickly moon is seen to shed,
Through spell-rais'd fogs, a bloody baleful red.
‘ That Spectre fix'd his eyes upon her full;
The light which shone in their accursed orbs
Was like a light from Hell,
And it grew deeper, kindling with the view.
She could not turn her sight
From that infernal gaze, which like a spell
Bound her, and held her rooted to the ground.
It palsied every power;
Her limbs avail'd her not in that dread hour.
There was no moving thence,
Thought, memory, sense were gone:
She heard not now the Tyger's nearer cry,
She thought not on her father now,
Her cold heart's-blood ran back,
Her hand lay senseless on the bough it clasp'd,
Her feet were motionless;
Her fascinated eyes
Like the stone eye-balls of a statue fix'd,
Yet conscious of the sight that blasted them.
The wind is abroad,
It opens the clouds;

Scattered

Scattered before the gale,
 They *skurry* through the sky,
 And the darkness retiring rolls over the vale.
 The stars in their beauty come forth on high,
 And through the dark-blue night
 The moon rides on triumphant, broad and bright.
 Distinct and darkening in her light
 Appears that Spectre foul.
 The moon-beam gives his face and form to sight.
 The shape of man,
 The living form and face of Arvalan ! —
 His hands are spread to clasp her.*

This is the only lengthened specimen of horror, (and a horrible specimen it is,) which we shall select from the poem. Powerful as the descriptions of this nature, in which Mr. S. abounds, must be allowed to be, we think that his gayer or his gentler scenes are still more finished ; and, since they are incomparably more pleasing in their kind, we shall confine our principal extracts to them. He excites admiration and pity naturally :—but his sources of terror are always extravagant, and often disgusting.

We need not, it will be seen, have anticipated *another* Arvalan. *Alter et idem Arvalan*, dead and alive, burned on the funereal pile, and ‘all naked feeling, and raw life,’ appears again and again :—but Kailyal runs to the fane of Pollear, which (*à propos*, like the Statue of Mariataly,) is at hand ; and just as Arvalan, ‘with fleshy arm of might,’

‘Seiz’d her, that instant the insulted God
 Caught him aloft, and from his *sinuous grasp*,
 As if from some *tort catapult* let loose,
 Over the forest hurl’d him *all abroad**.’

“*Nec Deus intersit*,” &c. is a rule of poetical criticism which Mr. S. has most strictly observed. He has, to be sure, a God in every page : but, since there is also a difficulty in every page which no mortal can obviate, how should it be otherwise?

The 6th Section, yclept *Casyapa*, finds Kailyal senseless under the poisonous shade of a broad Manchineil, and thus introduces a new and prominent character in the poem :

‘Bright and so beautiful was that fair night,
 It might have calm’d the gay amid their mirth,
 And given the wretched a delight in tears.
 One of the Glendoveers,

* We shall have another opportunity of remarking a plagiarism from this favourite passage of Sternhold and Hopkins.

The loveliest race of all of heavenly birth,
 Hovering with gentle motion o'er the earth,
 Amid the moonlight air,
 In sportive flight was floating round and round,
 Unknowing where his joyous way was tending.
 He saw the maid where motionless she lay,
 And stooped his flight descending,
 And rais'd her from the ground.
 Her heavy eye-lids are half clos'd,
 Her cheeks are pale and livid like the dead,
 Down hang her loose arms lifelessly,
 Down hangs her languid head.

' With timely pity touch'd for one so fair,
 The gentle Glendoveer
 Prest her thus pale and senseless to his breast,
 And springs aloft in air with sinewy wings,
 And bears the Maiden there,
 Where Himakoot, the holy Mount, on high
 From mid-earth rising in mid-Heaven,
 Shines in its glory like the throne of Even.
 Soaring with strenuous flight above,
 He bears her to the blessed Grove,
 Where in his ancient and august abodes,
 There dwells old Casyapa, the Sire of Gods.'

Mr. Southey excels in night-scenes, and in all the descriptions which harmonize with melancholy. Why will he not feel how great is the charm that melody can lend to pensiveness? Why will he not catch the cadence of the tenderest of poets, whose breathing figures in his tranquil scene of night

"Lenibant curas, et corda oblita laborum?"

Why will he not discard his inglorious facility of versification, his mixture of lines of every length, and language of every age? He has genius; he has knowledge; he has, above all, the vivid conception and the dissolving tenderness of a poet; — why will not some *Angel* whisper in his ear, "*Southey! have a taste?*"

But to return, (and we are compelled to return,) to ridicule, — really, in these cases, the very bent of Nature; who seems to have given us such a faculty, on purpose to laugh out of countenance absurdities which the reasoning power would disdain to expose.

Old Casyapa is frightened at Ereenia's daring (for so the Glendoveer is named,) to bring a mortal to 'the fountain of the sacred river, underneath the tree of life:' but Ereenia convinces him that the maid is free from sin, by ocular demonstration; for the source of the Holy River does not shrink from her touch.

"The

"The Maiden, *of a truth*, is pure from sin,"

is old Casyapa's quaker-like reply; and, encouraged by his august sanction, Ereenia calls forth a 'ship of heaven,' which 'comes sailing down the skies,' and prepares to set out on his aerial voyage with Kailyal; for whom, were he not a superhuman being, the reader would begin to suspect that he entertained a secret *penchant*.

"Where wouldst thou bear her?" cries

The ancient Sire of Gods.

"Straight to the Swerga, to my 'Bower of Bliss,'"

The Glendoveer replies,

"To Indra's own abodes."

In the 7th section, *the Swerga*, the Ship of Heaven, 'instant with thought,' sails on; and now approaching to its destined port, after a pleasant and easy passage, 'swift as a falling meteor shapes its *flight*,' (*remigio alarum*, we conclude,) to the abodes of Indra. Here Ereenia introduces Kailyal to a palace 'worthy of its God;'—worthy, we may add, of any of those celestial beings,

"Of whom in childhood's halcyon days we read,

As dwelling blest in lands of Faery!

By thee, maternal *Bunch*! how sweetly led,

Or, *Goose*! still dearer Mother, led by thee."

Let our readers also enjoy the pleasing reminiscence, and confess, with ourselves, the strange mixture of good and evil of which Mr. Southey's Manichæan genius is composed!

"A bard so various, that he seems to be

Not one, but every Bard's epitome."

'Built on the Lake the waters were its floor;
And here its walls were water arch'd with fire,
And here were fire with water vaulted o'er;
And spires and pinnacles of fire
Round watery cupolas aspire,
And domes of rainbow rest on fiery towers;
And roofs of flame are turretted around
With cloud, and shafts of cloud with flame are bound:
Here, too, the Elements for ever veer,
Ranging around with endless interchanging;
Pursued in love, and so in love pursuing,
In endless revolutions here they roll;
For ever their mysterious work renewing;
The parts all shifting, still unchanged the whole.
Even we on earth, at intervals, descry
Gleams of the glory, streaks of flowing light,
Openings of heaven, and streams that flash at night
In fitful splendour, through the northern sky.'

It is impossible to be blind to those sparkles of illumination which, even in the poet's most childish passages, burst through the cloud that surrounds them ; which make the darkness visible ; and which, alas !

" Serve only to discover sights of woe."

Indra, we are sorry to find, is as unable as old Casyapa to afford protection to Kailyal. They both tremble at Kehama. The gentle maiden, however, returning the selfish conduct of her father with truly filial affection, will not abandon him, and begs to be taken back to earth from the presence of these powerless divinities. Earth can promise her no more security than heaven ; though, strange to say ! not less.—Indra suggests the propriety of removing her (and the direction of her *pass* evidently occasions some trouble to the Justice of this district,) to a very ambiguous situation ;

' Where Ganges hath its second birth,
Below our sphere, and yet above the earth,
There may Ladurlad rest beyond the power
Of the dread Rajah, till the fated hour.'—

Section 8th, *the Sacrifice*, describes Kehama on the eve of offering that last victim to Seeva, which is to consummate the climax of his privileges :

' Soon will he seize the Swerga for his own,
Roll on through Padalon his chariot wheels,
Tear up the adamantine bolts which lock
The accurst Asuras to its burning floor,
And force the drink of Immortality

From Yamen's charge,'—

leaving no hope to the Universe, (as was premised,) but another Avatar.

' Nine and ninety days are fled,
Nine and ninety steeds have bled,
One more, the rite will be complete,
One more, and this the dreadful day !'

The hallowed steed, which no mortal has touched, is driven on by a contracting circle of pursuers, and the whole space is commanded by a numerous guard of archers. 'The Bramin at the golden palaces' has struck the time,

' One, two, three, four, a thrice-told chime !
And then again, one, two !'*

* Was there ever a nobler specimen of imitative poetry ? *Procumbit humi Bos* is nothing to it ; and " The rook *went* " Caw, caw, caw !" hardly equals it.

Ere the final hour has sounded, and just as Kehama descends
from the temple with the axe of sacrifice in his hand,

‘ That instant from the crowd, with sudden shout,

A Man sprang out,

To lay upon the Steed his hand profane.

A thousand archers with unerring eye

At once let fly,

And with their hurtling arrows fill the sky.

In vain they fall upon him fast as rain,’—&c.

In course this is Ladurlad ; and here our readers see how happily Mr. Southey's elegant motto is illustrated, and how the curse, like a young chicken, has come some to roost with Kehama. Ladurlad defies him in a spirited strain ; and, unable to wreak his vengeance any farther on his chief enemy, the Rajah bids the innocent archers lay down their bows and arrows, while his heroic cavalry hem them in and murder them !—This is *natural*, we shall be told, in an Indian story. How often are we obliged to recollect Voltaire's reply to the defender of such exhibitions of *Nature* !

With unfeigned pleasure we turn from the conclusion of this section to the opening of the next, *the Home Scene*. Here, as we have again and again remarked, Mr. Southey is really *at home*. Here he is a poet. Tenderness, the genuine tenderness of a good and accomplished mind, seems to us his characteristic feeling. Why should it not be predominant in his works of imagination ? Does he fear that the sickened appetite will surfeit, and so die ? Let him have no such apprehension. Nature will find her own seasons of repose ; and the strings of fictitious misery were never drawn so tight by genius as to be in any danger of snapping.

While the vultures are lured by the scent of the inhuman sacrifice recorded above, Ladurlad wanders forth, unknowing whither, in unabated wretchedness :

‘ Unwittingly the wretch's footsteps trace

Their wonted path toward his dwelling-place,

And, wandering on, unknowing where,

He starts at finding he is there.

‘ Behold his lowly home,

By yonder broad-bough'd plane o'ershaded :

There Marriataly's image stands,

And there the garland twin'd by Kailyal's hands

Around its brow hath faded.

The Peacocks, at their master's sight,

Quick from the leafy thatch alight,

And hurry round, and search the ground,

And veer their glancing necks from side to side,

Expecting from his hand

Their

Their daily dole, which erst the Maid supplied,
 Now all too long denied,
 But as he gaz'd around,
 How strange did all accustom'd sights appear !
 How differently did each familiar sound
 Assail his altered ear !

Here stood the marriage bower,
 Rear'd in that happy hour
 When he, with festal joy and youthful pride,
 Brought Yedillian home, his beauteous bride.
 Leaves not its own, and many a borrowed flower,
 Had then bedeck'd it, withering ere the night ;
 But he who look'd, from that auspicious day,
 For years of long delight,
 And would not see the marriage-bower decay,
 There planted and nurs'd up, with daily care,
 The sweetest herbs that scent the ambient air,
 And train'd them round to live and flourish there.

Nor when dread Yamen's will
 Had call'd Yedillian from his arms away,
 Ceas'd he to tend the marriage-bower, but still,
 Sorrowing, had drest it like a pious rite
 Due to the monument of past delight.
 He took his wonted seat before the door,—

Even as of yore,
 When he was wont to view, with placid eyes,
 His daughter at her evening sacrifice.
 Here were the flowers which she so carefully
 Did love to rear for Marriataly's brow ;

Neglected now,
 Their heavy heads were drooping, over-blown :
 All else appear'd the same as heretofore,
 All—save himself alone ;

How happy then,—and now a wretch for evermore !

The line in this affecting passage (for affecting it is, with all its faults of *Manner*,) which is printed,

' Brought Yedillian home, his beauteous bride

we conclude ought to have run as follows,

' (First) brought Yedillian home, his beauteous bride :—

Mr. S. *must* have meant this. He could not, otherwise, have written so musically and so sweetly, in the generality of these verses. The description which follows is also admirable. The lonely man, in his deserted cottage, hears the distant mirth of his native village, and the voices of his former friends :

' But with their joy no more his heart rejoices !
 And how their old companion now may fare
 Little they know, and less they care.

The torment he is doom'd to bear
Was but to them the wonder of a day,
A burthen of sad thoughts soon put away.'

How *painful* it is (to those whom matters of taste and fancy can *pain*,) to see such poetry so thrown away :—thrown away on a story of which the impossibility (yes, its impossibility, the old unanswerable objection,) destroys its whole interest, to all but children. Were Ladurlad a real being, this description of his sensations would be as superior to anything in Crabbe, as Virgil is superior to Juvenal.

The poor wretch imagines (a most natural though horrible imagination) that 'they wronged him with their merriment*.' He turns, in disdain, to a closer survey of his neglected garden, bursts out into hopeless agony, and prays for death :—but, softened on a sudden, he remembers his daughter, and offers calmer supplications for her welfare :

'A loud and fiendish laugh replied,
Scoffing his prayer. Aloft, as from the air,
The sound of insult came ; he look'd, and there
The visage of dead Arvalan came forth,
Only his face amid the clear blue sky,
'With long-drawn lips of insolent mockery,' &c. &c.

In the scene which ensues, we are recalled to our *Virgilian* simile above, and are indeed forced to exclaim, "*Mantua, va misera niniūm vicina Cremona !*" and, pursuing the end of Lord Chesterfield's allusion, we fancy that we hear a *fiddle* of most miserable tone, succeeding to some very touching notes of a really noble instrument. Can any thing be much more ludicrous than the following scene ? What alternations of pathos and absurdity does this poem exhibit !

Ladurlad picks up the stake with which he had once killed Arvalan, to kill him with it again. The *face* of Arvalan puts out a *hand*, catches a sunbeam, and condenses its light ; which he flings at Ladurlad, and burns the stake in his hand, but hurts not his charmed body. Arvalan, however, waves a *second hand*, (*levam potius quam secundam manum*), and summons a whirlwind from the sky ; which scoops up the red-hot sand in showers about Ladurlad. The hand moves every way with the storm, and fills his 'ears, nostrils, eyes, and mouth,' with the burning dust :—but Ereenia suddenly descends from the ship of heaven, and cuts Arvalan's face, through and through, with

* This idea, in Godwin's "Fleetwood," is stretched to the very verge of insanity. It is sublimely introduced in Schiller's "Robbers."

his "*grinding blade*," three several times. He then bids the ship
alight; and, having taken *Ladurlad* up, as a fresh passenger,

——— 'the living bark,
'Through air and sunshine, held its heavenly way.'

Were we to pursue our analysis of the contents of this
maraculous poem, step by step, through every incident, the
task would be as difficult to confine that analysis within the
limits of a Review, as to give a detailed account, within the
same bounds, of the "*One Thousand and One Nights' Entertainments*." Yet it is necessary for us, according to our pur-
pose of deterring future writers from the choice of such a story,
or for such a management of that story, to detail the gross
follies of the work in question; and tedious as the operation
may be, we trust that, in the judgment of all those lovers of
literature who duly value the preservation of sound principles
of composition among us, the end will excuse the means.

We must not, however, lay *too heavy* a 'curse' upon our
readers, at once, and therefore we here suspend our task,

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Transactions of the Society, instituted at London,
for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce,*
Vols. XXV. XXVI. XXVII.

[*Article concluded from the Number for April.*]

WE have already noticed the papers in the departments of
Agriculture, Chemistry, Manufactures, and the Polite
Arts, and have now to proceed to the other classes included in
these volumes,

MECHANICS.

The numerous inventions which here present themselves
oblige us to consult the utmost possible brevity.

Mr. Christopher Wilson, Richard-street, Commercial Road,
London, gives an account of what he calls a *neutral-built self-
balanced sailing or life Boat*, in the construction of which the
two modes of clincher and carver-built are united.

J. Whitley Boswell, Esq., Clifford's Inn, presents to the So-
ciety a model of a *Capstan, which works without requiring the
Messenger or Cable coiled round it to be ever surged*. The method,
by which the necessity of surging is prevented, consists in the
simple addition of a second small barrel, or capstan, of less
dimensions, and in alternately passing the coils of the mes-
senger round the large capstan and this small barrel.

A Machine for raising Coals or other articles from mines is next described by Mr. Gilbert Gilpin, (the inventor,) of Old Park Iron Works, near Shifnal. The details are ample; though, in a subsequent communication, Mr. G. complains of some errors: but the greatest mistake is that of the engraver, who has put the wrong side of the machine to face the pit, (see Vol. xxvi. p. 194.) Mr. G. has ascertained by six years' experience, (see his Letter on *the improved Crane and flexible chains*, Vol. xxvii. p. 206.) that chains, when worked in groves, are more cheap, safe, and durable than hempen ropes.

Boot-closers, harness-makers, army accoutrement-makers, leather pipe-makers, &c. are interested in the subject of the following paper, in which Mr. A. Stass, Porter-street, Newport Market, describes *a machine* which he has constructed *for enabling workmen to close Boots and Shoes in a standing posture*. Health and dispatch of business were consulted in this invention; for which the society of cordwainers, on St. Crispin's day, will of course drink the health of their brother Mr. Stass in a bumper.

Persons belonging to collieries, and to manufactories connected with mines and minerals, will be sensible of the value of the improved *Tram-plates for carriages on rail roads*, invented by Mr. C. Le Caan, of Llanelly in Wales. These tram-plates are fixed by means of a tenon and mortise, and obviate the many impediments which arise from the irregularity of driving nails. They are also less expensive than plates laid down in the common mode.

Consulting safety, Mr. Joseph Collier, Crown-street, Soho, has invented an *improved Ship-stove*.

In the first of the volumes before us, is inserted *an account of a Floating Light, calculated to save the lives of persons who have the misfortune to fall overboard in the night from a ship*. We are told that in the year 1776 a letter of thanks and a silver medal were voted to Mr. William Shipley, who is considered as the founder of the Society, for this ingenious and humane contrivance: but we are not informed why the knowledge of it has been so long concealed from the public.

Against the employment of climbing-boys in the operation of sweeping chimnies, humanity has long protested; and contrivances are still suggested to obviate the necessity of so barbarous a practice. The Society not only encourages the construction of chimney-sweeping machines, but has adjudged a premium for the greatest number of chimnies cleansed by mechanical means. If the poor climbing-boy cannot be entirely laid aside, we should hope that, in the majority of instances, such inventions as those of Mr. Smart, of Camden Town, or
of

of Mr. Davis, Crescent, Kingsland Road, here noticed, may be introduced with more dispatch and effect. The operating part of every machine, that is used for the purpose of cleansing chimnies of the soot which gathers on their sides, must be a combination of brushes; and the difficulty of working them in lofty and winding flues must be apparent.

‘ I have thought, (says Mr. Smart,) of a simple portable machine, whose properties are cheapness, durability, and power of execution. I think with perseverance it will abolish the practice of climbing boys; I have used it in several lofty chimnies, and am convinced it may in time become general. I have also sent a rod and curtain that may be fixed to any opening of a chimney-piece, from six inches to five feet, without using nails or forks in the common mode, to the injury of the wainscot or chimney-piece.

‘ My method of working the machine is, by first putting up the brush, then pressing forward one tube after another as strung upon the rope, till the brush meets with an elbow in the flue; then it is necessary to tighten the rope by pulling it under the feet, or by means of a small pulley, and putting in one of the small screws to pinch the rope; then make a fresh push, and by shifting the two screws, the one to relieve the other, it will pass the elbow and possess sufficient stiffness to allow the brush to be forced forward to any height.

‘ I have tried the heath and hair-brushes, and find, that if the flue is well filled, it does not require so hard a substance as heath, as it brings down the mortar with the soot. The brushes of hair, and those formed from the article of which carpet brooms or whisks are made, I think will answer best for general use.

“ This is to certify, that Mr. George Smart, of Camden Town, by means of a machine of his own invention for sweeping chimnies, has made two experiments on my hall and parlour chimnies, to ascertain the practicability of raising the machine through their various windings. The first of these flues measures upwards of fifty feet from the hearth, and the operation was performed with apparent ease, sending down a quantity of soot, together with some wet mortar, although the flue had been recently swept by a regular chimney-sweeper. The other from the hearth measures sixty feet, and although there are no less than three elbows in it running in opposite directions, (as the boy informs me), the operation was performed within nine minutes.

“ Soho-square, May 2, 1803.

“ JOHN TROTTER.”

Mr. Davis offers also an explanation of his process, which acts on the same principle with that of Mr. S. — Sheffield has concurred with the metropolis in attempting to remove the necessity of using climbing boys for sweeping chimnies; (see Vol. xxvii. p. 209.) and a plate of the Sheffield apparatus is exhibited, somewhat differing from that which is employed in London. From the letter, however, of Mr. S. Roberts, the Chairman

of the Sheffield Committee, it appears that no sanguine hopes can be entertained of preventing the barbarous custom of employing climbing-boys, unless an Act of Parliament could be procured, prohibiting chimney-sweepers from taking any more climbing-apprentices, and from employing any other than apprentices as climbing-boys. As such an Act is not likely to pass, the Sheffield Committee have laudably endeavoured to meliorate the condition of the climbing-boys, by inducing the Master Chimney-sweepers to enter into some resolutions in behalf of their apprentices.

In another communication, Mr. Davis affords a farther proof of his ingenuity by an *Invention to secure the Pannels of Doors and Window-shutters from being cut by House-breakers*. This contrivance is cheap and simple, consisting in the introduction of tempered steel wires through the pannels and stiles, at the distance of three inches; thus not only making a door or shutter far superior in strength, but calculated to defy the attempts of the house-breaker in taking out a pannel.

The *Watch Escapement*, for the invention of which Mr. S. Mendham, of Counter-street, Borough, received a premium, has two peculiar properties; the balance is kept in motion, 1st, without any friction; 2d, by an impelling power without any blow whatever. Mr. Ramsay thus offers his opinion of its merit:

‘ Having attended the Committee upon Mr. Mendham’s escapement, I think it a justice due to a man of genius, to give my opinion further upon it.

‘ In viewing mechanical improvements, we should not confine our ideas to their present properties, but should consider what improvements the principle will admit of.

‘ As the principles of Mr. Mendham’s escapement, and that of Mr. Mudge’s, which obtained a bounty from government, are much the same, I shall compare the one with the other.

‘ The impulse given to the balance without friction, is exactly the same as Mudge’s. The remontoir is bent up by the maintaining power in a similar way to that of Mudge’s, but from the form of the pallet, which is a plain surface, it is not so perfect. Mudge’s, from the form of the pallet, bends the remontoir always to the same place, the other is bent higher or lower according to the force of the maintaining power, but by forming the pallet like Mudge’s it would render them alike in that respect. The only other objection is the spring detent that detains the wheel, when it drops from the pallet of the remontoir; it is the same as that of a detached escapement, consequently exposed to the whole force of the maintaining power. To compensate for these objections, the arc of vibration is not limited like Mudge’s, which is of great importance; and having only one remontoir, it is more simple. It is, therefore, superior to Mudge’s in having only one remontoir; and being unlimited in the arc of vibration, it is superior to the detached escapement in giving the impulse without friction.’

With

With this paper we must combine the letter of Mr. G. Prior, jun. of Otley in Yorkshire, (Vol. 27. p. 200.) explaining a *Clock Escapement*, which will work with a pendulum of any length, and has so little friction that it does not require any oil. Mr. P. lays it down as a principle that 'it is necessary that the detent spring, the impelling spring, and the pendulum should all spring from one right line or centre, and the impelling spring be so much stronger than the detent spring as will always be sufficient to unlock the wheel.'

In that curious department of mechanics which relates to the construction of time-keepers, other papers occur. Mr. William Hardy, St. John-street, Clerkenwell, suggests a plan for *equalizing the long and short arcs of Vibration in Time-keepers*; and Mr. Henry Ward, of Blandford, Dorsetshire, presents a *Compensation-pendulum for a clock or time-piece*. In order to equalize the arcs of vibration, Mr. H. points out three methods, and Mr. W. states four advantages obtained by the use of his pendulum; but for an explanation of the methods in the former case, and of the advantages in the latter, we must refer to the respective communications; adding, however, that Mr. W. complains of an error of the press, (see Vol. 26. p. 203.) and that he has moreover invented a *crank useful in working Telegraphs*.

It will suffice merely to mention Mr. Martin Furniss's (Strand) *Air-tight Hinge for screens or doors*, so as to enable them to fold either way: but the certificates annexed to the paper of Mr. F. C. Daniel, of Wapping, giving an account of his *Life Preserver or Apparatus to secure persons from sinking in water*, will require from us some description of it:

'The body of the machine which is double throughout, is made of pliable water-proof leather, large enough to admit its encircling the body of the wearer, whose head is to pass betwixt two fixed straps, which rest upon the shoulders; the arms of the wearer pass through the spaces on the outside of the straps; one on each side, admitting the machine under them to encircle the body like a large hollow belt; a strap, on the lower part of the machine, is attached to the back of it, and by passing betwixt the thighs of the wearer, and buckling, holds the machine sufficiently firm to the body, without too much pressure under the arms. The machine being thus fixed, is inflated with air by the wearer blowing in from his lungs through a cock, a sufficient quantity of air to fill the machine, which air is retained by turning the stop-cock. The machine, when filled with air, will displace a sufficient quantity of water to prevent four persons from sinking under water.

'Mr. Daniel recommends his Life Preservers to be prepared as follows: viz, To select sound German horse-hides, and to cut a piece six feet long, and two feet six inches wide, free from blemish or shell;

shell; it is first to be curried, and then rendered water-proof by Mollerstein's patent varnish, of Osborn-street, Whitechapel, which preserves the leather more supple, and admits it to be easier inflated than any other water-proof leather.'

The last article of this class in Vol. 25. is introduced by the following preface:

'A Publicity having been recently given to some Experiments off the Eastern Coasts of this Island, for preserving Lives in Cases of Shipwreck, by Means of a Rope attached to a Shell thrown from a Mortar; the Society think it incumbent on them to remind the Public, that so far back as the year 1792, a Bounty of Fifty Guineas was given to Mr. JOHN BELL, then Serjeant, afterwards Lieutenant of the Royal Regiment of Artillery, for his Invention of throwing a Rope on shore, by Means of a shell from a Mortar, on board the Vessel in distress; the particulars of which were published in the tenth volume of the Society's Transactions, page 204.; but a descriptive Engraving having been omitted at that time, it is thought expedient to insert it in the present Publication, with some further Particulars then omitted.'

Then follows an account of some experiments made to ascertain the practicability and utility of throwing a line on shore by a mortar in case of a ship being stranded: with observations by Lieutenant Bell on the mode of throwing the line, and on the application of the mortars to other uses in trading ships.

As the counterpart of this communication, we must here introduce the mention of a still more interesting paper, by Captain George William Manby, of Yarmouth, Norfolk, in Vol. 26.; who has suggested a *Method of preserving the lives of shipwrecked persons, and of forming a communication with ships stranded on a lee-shore, by means of a rope thrown over the vessel from a mortar on shore*, by which an apparatus can be used to rescue the crew, &c. Sundry testimonies are recorded, to prove the excellence of this invention; and we shall transcribe the first, because it is the shortest, in which our readers will remark that Captain Manby's apparatus can be employed when it is impossible to fire a mortar from the stranded vessel:

'Norfolk, Great Yarmouth.

'JOHN PROUTING, late master of the brigantine or vessel called the Elizabeth of Plymouth, maketh oath and saith, that he was on board the said vessel, when she was unfortunately stranded on the beach of Great Yarmouth aforesaid, in a violent gale of wind, on Friday the 12th day of February instant. That a rope from the shore was thrown by a piece of ordnance to the distance of one hundred and fifty yards, over the said vessel, and lodging upon her rigging, at which time no other communication could be obtained; and by means of which rope so thrown, he solely attributes the safety of himself and crew. That he could not at the time have used a piece

piece of ordnance, or any rope on board for effecting a communication with the shore, from the rolling of his said vessel and the sea making continual breaches over her; and that the deponent is fully convinced that the invention of throwing a rope to a ship or vessel stranded on a lee shore, is of the utmost consequence and importance to a maritime and commercial country, and interesting to the world at large.

‘ JOHN PROUTING.
‘ Sworn at Great Yarmouth aforesaid, this 22nd day of February,
‘ 1808, before me,

‘ EDMUND K. LACON,
‘ Mayor of the Borough of Great Yarmouth.’

Captain William Bolton, of the Royal Navy, explains an *improvement in the construction of Jury-Masts**, which may be of great importance after a general action, and when proper lower masts cannot be obtained; and

Captain H. L. Ball, R. N., points out a method of *improving Anchors, by rendering them more durable and safe for ships*, and also a *new mode of Fishing Anchors*: but neither of these papers is so important as that which follows them, by Mr. T. Roberts, of the Navy Office, on his *improvement in Ship Building, by securing the ends of the beams of ships without wooden knees*. The value of this hint does not seem to have been properly appreciated by the Society, who merely vote to Mr. R. their Silver Medal: but as the Lords of the Admiralty and Commissioners of the Navy had previously recommended it to the King in Council to reward him with a premium of 800l., the Society perhaps deemed their small testimony of approbation sufficient. To the introduction of *iron knees*, in naval architecture, it was found necessary to resort from a general failure of the supply required for wooden knees. A long list is given of ships of war constructed with those iron knees, among which is the *Caledonia*, of 120 guns.

Two papers on *Telegraphs* occur, one by Major Charles Le Hardy, of the island of Jersey; the other by the Chevalier A. N. Edelcrantz, President of the Academy of Arts, and Superintendant of his Swedish Majesty's buildings in Sweden. It would be in vain to attempt an intelligible description of these telegraphic machines without the plates: we shall there-

* Captain Bolton has resumed this subject in a subsequent paper, (Vol. xxvii. p. 139.) in consequence of the suggestion of some doubts as to the practicability of rigging his improved Jury Masts. These doubts were obviated by a model completely rigged, to which he has added a contrivance for better securing the shrouds of rigging. The engravings annexed explain these inventions; and we take it for granted that persons concerned will consult them, together with Captain B.'s descriptions,

fore content ourselves with remarking that both are calculated to express as many combinations as would ever be required, and that the latter has been for several years in constant use on both sides of the Baltic.

In connection with these telegraphic machines, we shall notice two inventions of a more simple kind, in which only manual operations are employed, specified in Vol. xxvii. p. 153. *et seq.* The first is called an *Anthropo-Telegraph*, or *mode of communication in the day or night by disks*, by Mr. Knight Spencer, of Bromley Lodge, near Bow; the other is called a *Homograph**, by Lieutenant James Spratt, of the Royal Navy, whose gallantry in the battle of Trafalgar is recorded in a letter which accompanies the communication. Mr. Spencer employs his men to make signals with disks holden in different attitudes, and Lieutenant Spratt directs his code of signals to be performed with a white pocket-handkerchief, to be kept in different positions relatively to the body. Of these two animal telegraphs, the preference as to effect must be awarded to that of Mr. Spencer; though, for conversing at a distance, the Homograph of Lieutenant Spratt has this advantage, that a gentleman has always about him the object to be used, viz. a handkerchief. The idea of talking at a distance by means of signs mutually understood is ingenious; and we should not be surprised if this hereafter became as much a matter of general education as alphabetic writing is at present. Some future *Lancaster* may obtain fame by introducing it into his school; and on boards affixed to the fronts of country-seminaries, we may read, "Conversation by Telegraphs taught here."

For clearing the ground of *large Stones* buried a little way beneath the surface, and *for raising them out of the earth* without any soil being previously taken away, the machine of Mr. R. Richardson, of Keswick, Cumberland, is described in terms which indicate its utility and dispatch.

The comfort and luxury of our dwellings are now consulted in every possible way; and the winds of heaven are not suffered to obtrude themselves roughly into our apartments. Mr. John Tad, of Little Hermitage, Wapping, has contrived to make *Doors when shut to be air-tight; and, on opening, not to drag on the carpet.*

* The machinery is constructed of a slip of well seasoned beech wood, equal in length to the width of the door; this slip is one and a quarter inch wide, and half an inch thick, and to be covered with green cloth on the inside; it is to be hung to the bottom of the door,

* This word is awkwardly formed by the combination of a Latin with a Greek term.

with

With three small brass hinges, and is drawn up by a concealed spring as the door opens, and is forced down when the door shuts, by one end of it, which is semicircular, pressing upon a concave semicircular piece of hard beech wood, fastened at the bottom of the door case, and which holds it down close to the floor or carpet, so as to exclude the air from entering under it.'

Workmen who are in the habit of using screws with nuts will perceive the utility of an improved *shifting Screw-Wrench*, to fit different sized nuts or heads of screws, by Mr. William Barlow, of his Majesty's dock-yard, Portsmouth.

A lucid account of Gas lights is given by Mr. S. Clegg, of Manchester, in the explanation of his *Apparatus for making Carbonated Hydrogen Gas from Pit Coal, and lighting factories therewith*. The plates, with the references to them, afford a clear idea of the shape of and mode of employing the apparatus; which is 'capable of supporting forty lamps for four hours, each lamp affording light equal to ten candles of eight in the pound. Each lamp consumes six cubical feet of gas per hour.' We wish that Mr. C. had informed the reader what weight of coal is generally necessary for the production of this quantity of gas.

Having discovered defects in the drags commonly employed in searching for the bodies of drowned persons, John Miller, Esq. of Bedford, describes an apparatus of his invention, *for raising the Bodies of persons who have sunk in water, and for assisting persons in danger in water*. This machine combines the properties of the rope, pole, and bar-drags, accommodates itself to uneven ground, fishes an extent of ten feet at one sweep, and can be drawn by one person. In addition to this drag, Mr. M. has contrived a *Reel Safeguard* for the security of persons going to the assistance of drowning persons, or diving for them; and a *Missile Rope*, capable of being flung to a person in distress, at a considerable distance from shore. These humane inventions merit notice; and of each a full explanation, with illustrative plates, will be found in Vol. xxvii.

Mr. Thomas Newton, of Bridge-street, Blackfriars, endeavouring to save labour, and to prevent waste in articles which require chopping, as sausage-meat, suet, madder, carrots, &c. has constructed a *machine for Cutting Roots for Cattle, articles for dyers' use, and for culinary purposes*, the utility of which is very apparent.

To render our public vehicles more safe, Mr. J. Varty, of Liverpool, coach-maker, has invented a *method to prevent the accidents which frequently happen from the Linch Pins of Carriages breaking or coming out*. The safety of the contrivance consists of

of an additional linch-pin, which is fixed in a recess cut for it in the axle, and which turns on a pin.

As the state of our linen-manufactory has been cramped by the refractory conduct and inability of hand-hacklers, Matthew Murray, Esq. of Leeds, offers a *Machine for hackling Hemp, or Flax*, in a more expeditious and perfect manner than it has hitherto been done either by hand or machinery.

‘It reduces the operation to a certainty, which was not so before, which is of material importance for mill spinning, as flax does not undergo any other separating process after being hackled, but is taken immediately from the hackle to the rollers. No carding, as is done to cotton or wool, can be applied to flax, therefore the necessity of perfect hackling may be easily inferred; and the performance of this machine gives me great hopes that we may now be enabled to manufacture our finest linen fabrics by machinery at a cheaper rate than at present, as a similar reduction has taken place in cotton manufactures since the invention of spinning cotton by machinery.’

The subjoined certificates substantiate the accuracy of this statement.

A File for Receipts and Letters, invented by Richard Wright, Esq. of Essex-street, has this advantage over the common files, that any paper can be detached, without taking off all that are above it. The construction is simple.

The contrivance of Mr. T. Warren, Jun. Buckingham-street, Adelphi, for teaching to Write on a cheap plan, by means of copies engraved on Slates, must serve to facilitate education among the poor; and if slates and pencils are to supersede the use of paper and pens in charity-schools and others, where cheapness is an object, the ingenious *Machine for making Slate Pencils*, invented by Mr. J. Brookbank, of Whirlpipin, near Whitehaven, merited the reward which it received from the Society. It is too complicated for mere verbal description.

Our nightly plunderers, who are a numerous fraternity, will not join with us in thanking Mr. R. Salmon, of Woburn, for his improved *Man-trap for securing persons attempting depredations*, (though it is to be done) without affecting their Life or Limbs. A robber may be detained all night in a garden by means of this invention.

To Mr. Salmon we are also indebted for a paper explanatory of a method of constructing commodious Houses with Earth, or Pisé Walls: but we think that this mode of building will not prevail in Great Britain, except for cottages.

It appears, by more instances than one, that the Society have been reviewing their former minutes. In consequence of the frequent fires in the manufactories of tallow, soap, oils, varnishes,

varnishes, &c. a description is now brought forwards of a *Boiler for the use of tallow-chandlers and other manufacturers of inflammable matter*, a model of which was presented by Mr. Bream, of Yarmouth, so far back as the year 1786. The principle of this boiler is very simple; it has a double rim, with a deep channel between the inner and the outer rim, communicating with a receiving vessel below.

The last article which we have to notice in the mechanical class is an *Eye Bath*, by Mr. John Duckett Ross, Princes-street, Leicester-square, which seems well calculated to clear the eye from extraneous matters.

COLONIES AND TRADE.

Long as the preceding class is, we think that the first subject specified under the head of *Papers in Colonies and Trade* ought to have been added to the list of mechanical inventions, viz. *a machine for beating out Hemp and Flax Seeds, likely to be useful in Canada*, by Mr. Ezekiel Cleall, of West Coker, near Yeovil, Somersetshire. Because the words *likely to be useful in Canada* are inserted in the title of the paper, it is considered as a colonial object: but Mr. C. speaks only of its use at home.

The next communication properly belongs to the class in which it is placed; being intitled *Observations on the Culture of Hemp, and other useful information relative to improvements in Canada*; by William Bond, Esq. of Canada. This gentleman informs us of a large district in this province, consisting of a rich deep black soil, which, when inhabited by farmers, will become one of the finest countries in his Majesty's territories, for the growth of hemp. He specifies the obstacles which have hitherto prevented its culture, points out the means of removing them, and suggests a plan of a cheap *machine*, to be turned by water, for making Hemp.—The exportation of the *Warren Rabbit* to Canada is strongly recommended as a matter which would promote the interests both of the colony and of the mother-country. Calculating on the prolific quality of this animal, Mr. B. is confident that large warrens of rabbits would soon be formed in the extensive plains of Canada; and that their fur would in a few years be a considerable object of commerce. The *Guanaco*, or camel-sheep of South America, is also mentioned as likely to become a national object at some future period; and Mr. B. recommends that the large *Pine Timber* of Upper Canada should be marked and secured for naval purposes.

The culture and preparation of Hemp, in the province of Canada, is the subject of a communication by Mr. Charles Frederick

Greene,

Grece, of Montreal, Lower Canada : but his success does not appear to have been very encouraging.

By way of supplement to the information given in Vol. 22, p. 402. on the subject of the *Herring Fishery*, Mr. Walter Baine, of Greenock, communicates the results of his extended experience. He has discovered that the superiority which the herrings of the Dutch have attained is in a great measure owing to their mode of fishing in the deep-sea, where the herrings are caught in their best state. The employment of Dutch fishermen is recommended ; and as Mr. B. wished to see the publication of the Dutch placart, the Society have subjoined a translation of this useful document, intitled *an Ordinance for the Government of the Great Fishery*.

Improvements in the cure of White Herrings, after the manner of the Dutch Pickled Herrings, are communicated by George Errington, Esq. of Yarmouth. Experienced Dutch fishermen were employed, and the process of curing the herrings is thus detailed :

‘ The vessel being well provided with good substantial oak barrels, and especially with good strong coarse bay salt, the crew beginning the herrings as soon as taken ; this operation is the act of taking out with a knife the fat-gut and gills, leaving the rest of the entrails. Upon the dextrous performance of this the art of curing pickled herrings principally depends ; this business is the great object of attention, and must be performed the instant that the herrings are caught, that the first drain, or what the fishermen call the life-blood, may be preserved, for it is this which gives the rich flavor to the pickle, and great care is taken that each barrel has some of this blood. Salt is lightly sprinkled over each layer of fish, and the quantity required is about one barrel of salt to three barrels of herrings. After the casks of herrings have stood from twenty-four to forty-eight hours, to settle, they are filled up, well coopered, and closed, and thus remain till the vessel discharges her cargo, when the barrels are opened, and once more filled up, which is termed repacking. The fish are then ready for market.’

Dr. Alexander Anderson, of St. Vincent’s, communicates a catalogue of Plants growing in his Majesty’s botanical garden in that island, September 24, 1806, preceded by observations on the state of botany in that quarter. It is lamented that the culture of the cane entirely engrosses the attention of the planters. As to the bread-fruit, Dr. A. observes,

‘ Although one of the most valuable productions yet sent them, it is neglected and despised, unless by a few persons. They say that negroes do not like it, and will not eat it, if they can get any thing else ; but this is not really the case, as I know, and can declare from experience, that the very reverse is the fact, when once they are a little accustomed to it. The fact is, that the planters hate giving it a place

place on their estates, as they regard it as an intruder on their cane land, and they dislike any other object but canes. As to futurity, they think nothing of what may be the wants of themselves or negroes three or four years hence. Even their most valuable mill-timber, than which nothing is more daily wanted by them, they are constantly destroying instead of preserving.'

In the year 1807, other letters were sent by Dr. A. to the Society, in which he cursorily adverts to a variety of subjects, and more than once laments that his male nutmeg-tree has lost its mate.

Since Dr. Roxburgh's return to Bengal, (as we are happy to find, in good health,) he has resumed his useful inquiries, and has transmitted three letters, dated Calcutta, 1807 and 1808. His principal object seems to be the discovery of substitutes for hemp and flax; and he has forwarded to the Society some samples of *Calooc*, or Malay hemp. The strength of the fibres of this plant is great: but they are with difficulty cleansed from the glutinous fleshy exterior coat, with which they are covered and intermixed. The utility of *sun*, or Indian hemp, is highly extolled.

The correspondence of Drs. A. and R. is continued in Vol. xxvii. In that of the former, the productiveness of his *black Pepper-plant* is mentioned; and in that of the latter the *Resin* of the large Malabar tree, called *Valeria indica*, resembling amber,—a *similar Resin* brought from Muscat in Arabia,—and the orange dyeing drug, called *Wassuntaganda*,—are specified as useful acquisitions. Dr. R. concludes his letter with *Directions for taking care of Growing Plants at Sea*.—We have also a paper from Mr. John MacLachlan, of Calcutta, on the *products of the East Indies*, in which some peculiar salts called *Laborie* and *Bit-Noon* are described: but it is not ascertained whether these salts are natural or artificial productions.

To Dr. B. Heyne we are indebted for an ample account of the *Soda*, or *Mineral Alkali*, prepared in the East Indies from an earth which is common on the coast of Coromandel, and which might be obtained in such quantities as to supply all the demands of England. We shall not, however, particularize here, but hasten to finish this long and perhaps (to many) fatiguing enumeration, by the mention of Dr. Heyne's *Excursion to the Diamond Mines, at Mallavilly*; (the last article in Vol. xxvii.) which, whatever brilliant expectations it may raise, affords little satisfactory information. After having given an account of the superincumbent strata, as well as of the stratum in which diamonds are found, Dr. H. offers it as his opinion 'that the calcareous part of the stratum, and the phos-

phorescent particles of the iron, are the two most essential things that Nature employs for the formation of one of her hardest substances.' This excursion was not rewarded with the discovery of a single diamond.

From the hasty glance which we have taken of the multifarious contents of these Transactions, in which very extensive lists of new premiums are also exhibited, our readers must be impressed with a very favourable opinion of the laudable efforts of this Society, and must derive pleasure from the knowledge of its growing prosperity.

The present volumes contain portraits of the late Duke of Richmond, and the late Earl of Liverpool; with an engraving of the new Medal of the Society, modelled by John Flaxman, R. A., executed by G. F. Pidgeon, and engraved by Anker Smith, A. R. A. from a drawing by Maria Denman. The profiles of Minerva and Mercury on this medal are truly classical.

The 26th vol. contains, in addition to the usual matter, *An Analytical Index* to the 25 preceding volumes, which will be found very useful, and for which the Society deserves the thanks of its members and readers.

ART. IX. *A Grammar of the Latin Tongue* : for the Use of Schools.

By J. Jones, Author of the *Greek Grammar*. 12mo. 3s. bound. Mawman. 1810.

IN a humble and unpretending form, the public are here offered a work which displays much philological research and philosophic acumen, and which must inevitably augment that literary reputation which the author has already acquired by his *Grammar of the Greek Tongue* *. The system of the language of Rome has not, perhaps, in any instance, been more neatly, concisely, and at the same time more luminously exhibited. While Mr. Jones instructs the tyro in the rules of the Latin tongue, he explains the principles on which they are formed, and at every step relieves the usual dryness of grammatical instruction by the philosophical manner in which he treats the subject. His claim to novelty is not unfounded; and the labour which he has employed, in order to abridge the toil and smooth the path of the learner, ought not to be passed over without some acknowledgement. He teaches the Latin rudiments in a style that is not common with grammarians; and in a manner peculiarly advantageous to youth, who, instead

* See Rev. Vol. lii. N. S. p. 43.

of being instructed as if they were parrots, or creatures destitute of intellect, are assisted in exerting their rational faculties. With words, and the rules of construction, they are impressed with the rationale of grammar; and a habit of correct association and reflection is early superinduced. The importance of this method of inculcating grammar philosophically, instead of requiring boys to learn by rote, as it is called, is fairly stated :

‘ If in those early years, in which the human faculties naturally put forth their blossoms, and the seeds of knowledge are sown with advantage, a youth be employed on a rational system of rules, thoroughly comprehended, and in consequence firmly impressed on his memory; if he then acquire a *habit* of fixing his attention, and exerting his talents with alacrity on things at once pleasing and instructive; if he be taught to analyse compound terms to their elements, and to trace their secondary to the primary sense; if he be led step by step to examine on one hand the vast influx of Latin words into English, or other modern tongues, and on the other to investigate their descent from the Greek, or their connection with any of the oriental dialects, he may be expected, according to the usual course of things, to appear, in the end, greatly distinguished by intellectual vigour, critical sagacity, enlightened taste, and profound learning.’

We shall add a few remarks on this subject, at the close of the article.

The Grammar is divided into three parts; the first of which contains the inflections of nouns and verbs; the second, the classification of nouns and verbs; and the third, syntax and prosody. — Part I., including what is commonly called the Accidence, is contained in the narrow compass of thirty pages; and the felicity as well as novelty of the method of developing the first rudiments of the Latin tongue, and of impressing them on the memory, must strike those who are acquainted with the ordinary mode of tuition. We are not sure, however, that any thing is gained by declining the adjective *bonus, bona, bonum*, as three distinct nouns; and we are at a loss to conceive why *nostras, vestras, cujas*, are omitted in the list of pronouns. In the arrangement of the cases, Mr. Jones very properly puts the vocative immediately after the nominative; and in his synopsis of the conjugations of verbs, the first person of the indicative mood is followed by the infinitive, as in this model of the first conjugation, *o, are, avi, atum*. He remarks that

‘ The Latin verb has three leading *stems* or *roots*, whence the remaining branches regularly ramify; viz. the present, the perfect, and the supine; and in conjugating any verb, it would be sufficient to specify these; but as the infinitive, though always regular, is the

mark or characteristic of the conjugation, it is necessary to mention it with the above three leading branches.'

In the second part, the author has laudably endeavoured, by the classification of nouns according to their declensions, to obviate the necessity of burdening the memories of young persons with *Propria quæ maribus* and *Quæ genus*; and in his chapter on 'the declensions as derived from the Greek,' he may be said to have illustrated the Latin Grammar. We quote some passages from this part of the work. After having observed that the first declension is borrowed from the Greek, he proceeds :

'The Æolians and Dorians formed the genitive in *αι*, and the dative in *αι*, as *μουσαι*, *μυσαι*. Hence the old Latin, which was derived chiefly from the Æolic dialect, had its genitive in *ai*—*vias*, of a way, for *vie*. In process of time, the *s* was dropped, and these two cases ended in *ai*—*musai*, which is the form we read in Lucretius. At length the final *i* was drawn through the preceding *a*, so as to make one syllable, and even one letter with it—*æ*, which became the established termination of the genitive and dative.

'This unfolds the origin of the difference between the dative and the ablative. In Greek, there is no distinction between these two cases, and no distinction subsists between them in Latin; at least they can be traced to one termination in all the declensions. Thus the old form was *musai*, which, by having the final *i* drawn through the preceding *a*, becomes the dative *musæ*; but, by subscribing it or dropping it altogether—*musa*, for the ablative. Hence the reason why the ablative is always long, the final syllable being really *ai* in pronunciation, and *a* only to the eye.'

'As there are but three declensions in Greek, there are but three, strictly speaking, in Latin, the fourth and fifth being derived from the third, and being but branches of it. Thus the gen. *gradus* is a contraction of *graduis*; the dative, *gradui* subscribes or drops *i*, and thus forms the ablative *gradu*. In the plural a similar contraction takes place, *gradues*, *gradus*.

'The difference between the fifth and third consists only in the genitive singular and plural. The first arises from dropping *s*, as *facieis*, *faciei*; the second from the introduction of the liquid (*dicum*, *dierum*,) as it were, to humour the broad sound of the concurring vowels. This declension also subscribes *i* of the dative, to form the ablative *diei*, *die*. The genitive is sometimes formed in the same manner, as *die* for *diei*, *fide* for *fidei*. Sometimes *e* is dropped in this case, as *fidi*, *dii*, for *fidei*, *diei*.

'In all the declensions, the dative and ablative in the plural number are the same; and they are produced in each from the corresponding declension in Greek. Thus, in the first, *u* in *ai* is dropped, as *μουσαι*, *muiss*; in the second, *o* in *oi* is dropped, *ωνοι*, *vinis*. But in the termination *oi*, was inserted the digamma; *ωνοις*, *ανθρωποις*, or *ανρωβις*. This digaminated form gave birth to *abus* in a few instances of the first declension; as, *filia*, a daughter; *anima*, the soul; *ambe*, both; *due*, two; dat. and abl. *filiabus*, *animabus*, *ambabus*, *duabus*.

'This

‘ This digammated form constitutes *ibus* of the dative and ablative in the third. In a few nouns the Greek *σι* is retained ; as, *Troasi*, or *Troasin*, for *Troadibus*, from *Troas*, a Trojan woman. The same form constitutes *ibus*, or *ubus*, of the fourth declension, and *ebus* of the fifth.’

The student of the Latin tongue will feel himself obliged to Mr. Jones for his well-arranged chapter, (superseding the use of *As in presenti*,) on *the conjugation and composition of verbs* ; which displays at one glance most of the simple verbs, with the prepositions which are combined with them in the formation of compound verbs, while references are given in the notes to the Greek primitives.

When he has fully developed the system of the formation of verbs, the author proceeds in a very interesting chapter to treat of the *Formation of the Latin Tongue* ; in which he introduces what he calls ‘ a short account of the much disputed DIGAMMA.’ His idea on the subject may be collected from the subjoined quotation :

‘ Though numerous classes of nouns are derived from verbs, yet all verbs either immediately or remotely originated in nouns ; and the more ancient any language is, the more easy it is to trace them to their origin.

‘ The compound verbs, which excel even the Greek in multiplicity and variety, are all of Latin growth ; but the simple verbs may be traced chiefly to Greece, and in some instances to the Asiatic languages, where they exist not as verbs, but as nouns. It is worth while to specify a few examples of this kind, but it is first necessary to state some of those general principles which influenced the Latin in its derivation from the Greek.

‘ 1. All the vowel sounds are so fluctuating, that no attention can be paid to them in tracing the origin of a word.

‘ 2. Consonants produced by the same organs are often interchanged one for another, so that the labials *p, b, v, f, φ*, are only one letter in an etymological view. The dentals *t, d, s, z, n*, are but another ; while the gutturals *k, g, j, ch, x*, form only a third letter.

‘ 3. The liquids *m, n, l, r*, not only are often interchanged, but they contribute to disguise a word by changing their situation, or by combining with one of the radical consonants. Thus *n* is adventitious whenever it is found united with a guttural or a dental ; as *δανς*, *densus* ; *μεγας*, *magnus* ; *ζυγω*, *jungo* ; *πηγω*, *pango* ; *τηγω*, *tango*. In some instances, however, the *d* is adventitious ; as, *candeo*, from *canco* ; *tendo*, from *τινω*.

‘ The letters *d, ζ, l, n*, often take the place of each other ; as, *λνφθα*, *νμφη* ; *Οδυσσευς*, *Ulysses* ; *πνυμα*, *plumo*, or *pulmo* ; *αζω*, to smell, *aleo*, and also *alo*.

‘ *M* is adventitious before *b, p, or φ* ; as, *κυβο*, *cumbo* ; *ληβω*, *λαμβάνω* ; *κορυφος*, the top, *corymbus*, berries growing on the top. The Hebrew *נאֵפֶחַ* *naaph*, in Greek, is *νμφη*, *νμφιος*, *νμφινω* ; in Latin *nubo*.

‘ The liquid *r*, from its vibratory sound, often changes its position ; as, *ῥέω*, *refo* ; *ῥάπισ*, *rapio* ; *ῥάπαξ*, *raphax*.

‘ 4. In the oriental languages, gutturals abounded, which, like other consonants, contained in themselves the vowel necessary to their pronunciation. But it is the tendency of every guttural, when become habitual, to soften down in the rapidity of utterance into a mere aspirate, till it at length vanishes. Thus *cornu* has degenerated into *born*, and *χῆμος* into *humus*, earth ; and into *homo*, a creature of earth, man. So, in the Greek, the oriental *khaan*, a king, became *ἄνασσειν*, to reign, which Homer pronounced *φνασσειν*.

‘ This leads me to remark, that the aspirate, instead of vanishing, was changed into a labial letter, *w*, *v*, *b*, *f*, or *φ* ; and this substitution of a labial for the guttural or an aspirate, is the origin of the much disputed DIGAMMA. This digamma prevailed in the age of Homer, when the language was chiefly oral. But his poems, as being *written*, preserved the guttural or aspirate, the true original character ; which, being studied, caused the aspirate to prevail in time over the digamma ; and thus it restored the language to its primitive purity. But the Latin having flowed from the Greek at an early age, when the caprice of oral sounds spread uncontroled by written letters, and having no monument of genius like the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to correct that caprice, as was the case in Greece, adopted the digamma, and thus separated by a broad line of distinction from the parent tongue.

‘ It is necessary to illustrate this position by a few examples. The digamma, for the aspirate, takes place in the beginning of words ; as, *ἑσπερα*, *vespera*, evening ; *οἶκος*, a house, *vicus*, a village, *focus*, a hearth, and *ῥέω*, to nourish ; *οἶνος*, *vinum*, vine ; *ῥήγω*, or *ῥάγω*, *frango* ; *χλωρός*, green, *floreo* ; *ἵστα*, *Vesta* ; *ἰς*, *vis*, force ; *ῥίς*, *vena*, veins ; *ὄψω*, *video*, or *viso* ; *ὠκο*, *voco*, *voceo*.

‘ It also takes place in the middle of words ; *ῥον*, an egg, *ovum* ; *αἶων*, *ævum*, an age ; *οἷς*, a sheep, *ovis* ; *ἄρουρα*, *arvum* ; *βρύω*, *ferreo* ; *πόλυς*, *volvo* ; *πῶς*, *bibo* ; *βίω*, *vivo* ; *λύω*, *seluo*, *solvo*. Latin words on this principle may be traced beyond the Greek to the Asiatic tongues. Thus in Arabic, *bareph*, from the triliteral *ب ر ف*, *burph*, means lettered, skilful, crafty, and gave birth to the Latin *verbum*, *vafer*, *faber*. The same Arabic word also means the extremity, or any prominent part of the body, as the middle finger, or *natura viri* ; and hence *verpa* and *verpus*. The Hebrew *הכר*, *bucco*, to strike, cut, produced *ico*, *icere*, to strike ; *vinco*, to conquer ; and *acuo*, to sharpen, *i. e.* to make a thing fit for cutting ; hence also *acus*, a needle, from its sharp point ; *εἶς*, keen ; *acetum*, vinegar, as being sharp to the taste.

‘ 5. For the digamma or labial, the Latin tongue has adopted the letter *s* in many of those words which have an aspirate in the Greek ; as, *ὑπερ*, *super* ; *ὑπο*, *sub* ; *ὑπερβίος*, *superbus*, proud ; *ὕς*, *sus*, a sow ; *σῆμι*, *sum* ; *ἅλς*, *sal*, salt ; *ἅλλαμαι*, *salio* ; *ἵκω*, *serpo* ; *ὠλεό*, *sedio* ; *ὠλεό*, *soleo* ; *ὕλη*, *sylva* ; *ἅμω*, a hook, *sumo* ; *ὠν*, *sui* ; *ὠλεός*, *subtus*, a furrow.

‘ This analogy led to prefix *s* to a consonant ; *γράφω*, *scribo* ; *πτερύγη*, a heel, *sperno* ; *γλυφω*, *sculpo*, or *sculpo*.

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Not only are the Rules of Syntax clearly laid down in the third part, but the student is assisted in discovering the reasons or grounds on which many of these rules are founded. Instead of vaguely asserting that certain verbs require, demand, or delight in (*exigunt, postulant, gaudent*) certain cases of nouns, Mr. Jones philosophically unfolds the principles of Syntax. Thus, after having, in p.122, 3, given a list of verbs governing a dative instead of an accusative case, he adds ;

‘ The reason why these verbs have a dative instead of the accusative, is, that the governed noun is not, as is the case with transitive verbs, the immediate object of the action, but the person to whom it points, and in whom it terminates ; Thus, *irascor tibi*, I feel anger for thee ; and in whom it terminates ; Thus, *irascor tibi*, I feel anger for thee ; *minatur nobis*, he expresses menace towards us ; *ne crede color*, give no credit to your beauty ; *save puero*, shew favour, or be favourable to the boy ; *indulgere sibi*, to be indulgent to one self ; *tibi suadebit*, he will address persuasion to thee.’

In like manner, he explains the rule of ‘ one verb governing another in the infinitive mood :

‘ The infinitive expresses motion or action abstractedly considered, and is, therefore, in strict propriety, a noun, in the form of a verb : I desire to learn ; I desire learning or knowledge ; “ He dreads to be touched—he dreads a touch.” *In scientia excellere pulchrum ducimus*, we deem to excel in science honourable ; we deem excellence in science honourable. So in all other instances a noun may be substituted for the infinitive, if a noun exists of that import : the reason, therefore, why a verb, after another verb, is put in the infinitive is, that it is a substantive expressing the object of the governing verb.’

To the same effect he observes in the chapter on the Syntax of Impersonal Verbs, that

‘ The infinitive mood, whether of the active or passive form, is, in strict propriety, an abstract noun ; and, hence, like other nouns, may be the subject, or the object of a finite verb : *Per virtutem potest iri ad astra*, i. e. *potest iter ad astra*, a way is possible to the stars, through virtue : and in every instance of this kind the corresponding verbal noun, where such exists, may be substituted for the infinitive ; *aliorum laudi et glorie invideri solet*, i. e. *invidia laudis et glorie solet*.*

* Lilly's grammar makes two rules of an infinitive mood and of a sentence sometimes serving as a nominative case to the verb : but Mr. Jones shews that both these instances fall under one and the same rule. In the passage so often quoted to exemplify the circumstance of a whole sentence being the nominative to the verb, *Ingenuas didicisse fideliter artes emollit mores*, it is the infinitive verb, officiating as an abstract noun, with the words depending on it, that is in fact the nominative,

Those parts of a verb, which are usually called the gerunds* in *di*, *do*, and *dum*, are considered as only the participle in *dus*, in the oblique cases; and as this last is taken from the present participle, the reason for their having an *active* sense is apparent.

On the form called by grammarians the *absolute* case, Mr. Jones presents us with some strictures. He denies the propriety of the term; since, 'so far from being *absolute*, or independent of the rest of the sentence, the clause is so connected with what goes before and what comes after, as a cause is with its effect. The reason why it is put in the *ablative* is that the ablative is the case which expresses the *cause* or medium by which an effect is produced.' The correctness of this observation is manifest, though it is fatal to our old acquaintance the *Ablative Absolute*.

It is not to be supposed that this Grammar will succeed in expelling from our public schools those that are now in use. *Propria quæ maribus*, &c. may be preferred to mere catalogues of nouns and verbs, on account of the poetic vehicle, in which these dry materials are conveyed, and because verse is some help to the memory: but Mr. Jones's rational analysis of the Latin Rudiments will serve to enlighten the mind of the student, when he has obtained so much knowledge of the language as to be able to examine it philosophically. To this exercise he should be invited before he leaves school: for the utility of reducing languages as much as possible to philosophic precision must be evident, however the fact may be that languages are not formed by philosophers, that anomalies and irregularities will occur from caprice or accident, and that they who would assign reasons for every mode which use has sanctioned must sometimes proceed on hypothetic ground.

Much, however, as we approve the plan of treating grammar philosophically, even in the routine of schools, for the upper classes, yet we must observe that some expressions in Mr. Jones's preface savour a little of presumption on this head; and we are surprised at them, because he usually speaks with that modesty which peculiarly becomes any innovator on established system, and which generally accompanies true merit. He says, in the place to which we allude, 'the author has throughout treated the subject in the *most* philosophical manner;' and he proceeds to state his reason for adopting this plan, 'because he is convinced that the more philosophically the principles of grammar

* 'Gerund is a word without propriety or meaning.'

are treated, the more intelligible they will appear even to children, and to children perhaps more so than to men, as less biassed by erroneous associations, and less in need of intellectual vigour to counteract the force of prejudice.* We cannot think that the strange teacher, cold Abstraction, (without whose aid neither grammar, nor any other science, can be discussed philosophically,) would find very docile pupils in *children*:—but to continue the author's observations.—‘This, it is allowed, is not the case in other philosophical disquisitions; because the philosophy of matter and of mind lies in regions far beyond the perceptions of sense*; whereas the philosophy of language is founded solely on external objects, the structure of the vocal organs, and the great law of animated nature, the association of ideas, *the operations of which all are able to comprehend*.’ So far from this last assertion being correct, we conceive that not two men (much less two children) exist in the United Kingdom, who would not disagree in opinion, if each of them was strictly to define his conception of this law of nature. Would, for instance, the daring disciples of Mr. Gay, and still more of Dr. Hartley, agree with the better instructed and diffident pupils of Reid and Stewart? assuredly not.—We repeat our belief that, if any two unprejudiced and logical reasoners were clearly to explain how far they conceive the association of ideas to influence their understandings, and how much of their thoughts they could resolve into that principle,—or what, in a word, was the extent of their knowledge of its operations,—they would soon be brought to a candid confession that, where so little is ascertained, a person of sound judgment will readily excuse his neighbour for guessing differently from himself.—Many facts, however, may be pointed out, which are in some measure explanatory of this curious principle, even to the youngest scholars: but we must take care, in our attempts to instruct, that we do not bewilder the youthful mind.

With regard to the Grammar itself, also, we do not think that Mr. Jones is uniformly happy in his Latin derivatives from the Greek. That *creo* comes from *νεπω*, ‘to bring into being by

* By philosophy, properly so called, Mr. Jones must mean experimental philosophy, and then the above will not be very precisely stated. The philosophy of matter consists in the knowledge of those general laws of nature which induction, from the observation of particular facts, has shewn to exist throughout the material world. The facts themselves, which are the foundation of this knowledge, are solely communicated to us by the perceptions of sense. Indeed, in the philosophy of mind, consciousness alone can furnish the original stores which induction is to use.

properly mixing the constituent parts,' (page 52.) is by no means proved, if probable; nor that *meo* (ibid.) comes from $\mu\alpha\omega$, to desire; 'hence to go after, or pursue what is desired;' and, although *moveo* most likely springs from the same root as *meo*, the question whether that root be $\mu\alpha\omega$ is much too doubtful to admit of positive assertion. 'The origin of *censeo* (says the author, page 55.) is perhaps $\gamma\epsilon\nu\epsilon\omega$, production; and primarily it signifies to number one's family or effects for the purpose of taxing. The effect of taxation, or oppression, is often secret resentment; hence *succenseo*, I am secretly angry.' The association of ideas has, perhaps, in this passage, betrayed Mr. Jones into rather a fanciful etymology. We could point out some other little extravagancies, and some careless observations; such as '*Bibo* is $\pi\iota\omega$,' instead of $\pi\iota\upsilon\omega$, which was nearer at hand;—and some omissions, as, in the brief notice of Phaleucic verse, the not mentioning its more common name of Hendecasyllabic. We wish also that Mr. Jones had always specified the classics from which he has drawn his exemplifications; and that he had been less solicitous of compression. In some of his translations, moreover, we do not consider him as correct; for instance, when he renders *hæret lateri lethalis arundo*, 'the fatal arrow clings to the side; and *hic ipso tecum consumerer ævo*, 'here with thee I should be consumed by time itself,' &c.:—but all these are trifles, compared with the general merit of the work, which will probably pass through several editions, and always receive improvement from the hand of its ingenious author.

ART. X. *A Complete Dictionary of Practical Gardening*: comprehending all the modern Improvements in the Art; whether in the raising of the various esculent Vegetables, or in the forcing and managing of different sorts of Fruits and Plants, and that of laying out, ornamenting, and planting Gardens and Pleasure Grounds; with correct Engravings of the necessary Apparatus, in Buildings and other Contrivances, as well as of the more rare and curious Plants cultivated for Ornament or Variety; from original Drawings by Sydenham Edwards. By Alexander McDonald, Gardener. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 10s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley.

It cannot escape the attentive reader of this bulky work, that while the opinions and practices of most modern professional authors in the department of horticulture are detailed in it, the writer is never bold enough to give his own opinion on those theories or practices; and some suspicions respecting the competence, or even the reality, of its ostensible compiler may hence arise, because an able professional man would have avoided such

such extreme caution, and would not have betrayed such distrust of himself. The subject, indeed, is by no means treated *con amore*, but, on the contrary, no inconsiderable degree of tameriness and timidity characterizes the whole compilation. What was our surprise, however, when we read the first sentence of the preface, as it is thus expressed? 'While almost every other department of useful science has been arranged and brought into a more accessible and convenient form, in the shape of a Dictionary, that of Gardening has remained nearly without assistance in this respect.' Has horticulture received no aid from the ample labours of Philip Miller, in his *Gardener's Dictionary*, in folio; from the same book abridged in octavo; and lastly, from the splendid edition lately published by Professor Martyn? After these works, can it be said that gardening has remained, previously to the appearance of the present volumes, nearly without a guide in the accessible and convenient form of a Dictionary? We were disposed to ascribe this strange and unfounded position to ignorance, though surely not of a venial kind in an author who professes to compile a large production on Gardening, even though he perhaps had not been so fortunate as to meet with any of the books above mentioned to facilitate and improve his labours: but, on proceeding in our examination, we found Professor Martyn's name introduced in the first column of the second page, and that of Mr. Miller in the second column of the same page; and indeed few entire pages occur without some reference being made either generally to Miller's *Gardener's Dictionary*, or specifically to the 'New Edition of Miller's Dictionary by Professor Martyn.' In what other light, then, can the first assertion be viewed than in that of an attempt at literary deception? for although it can have no effect on those who are acquainted with the works in question, yet so broad and unqualified a statement may deceive many readers, and preclude them from consulting the valuable originals which have furnished such copious materials in the compilation of the present volumes. — The other authors, on whose publications Mr. McDonald has imposed large contributions, to afford the means of discussing the various subjects which horticulture embraces, are Forsyth, Nicol, Dr. James Anderson, Curtis, Darwin, and some others; and in general we observe that the ideas and the practice of those writers are accurately and perspicuously detailed.

It is not our intention to enter into a minute examination even of the larger and more material articles of this Dictionary; and if we were disposed to undertake a task of such magnitude, we could scarcely entertain the hope of rendering it either gratifying or instructive to our readers: but some remarks are necessary.—

cessary. — Of its general character, we have already expressed our judgment. It is to be considered merely as a compilation; and although the selection of the materials might in some cases have been more judicious, it contains a great body of valuable information: but this opinion must be understood as subject to the exceptions already stated; and, notwithstanding the advantages of the convenient form of a dictionary held out by the compiler, subject also to the exception of the arrangement of the materials in that very form, concerning which we shall presently offer some hints.

The plan observed in treating of the genera of plants, as they occur in the order of the alphabet, is to mention the Linnean with the English or trivial name, when such name exists. The class and order in the sexual system, as well as its place among the natural orders, are next noticed. The generic characters are then detailed; and the characters of the species most commonly cultivated in this country, with the *habitats*, methods of culture, and the properties and uses of some of them, are enumerated and described: but in the execution of this plan we see glaring defects. On perusing the descriptions of many of the species, a reader who is unacquainted with botany would be apt to conclude that some of our most common plants are natives of other countries. Thus, for instance, the *habitat* of two species of *achillea*, or sneezewort, — plants that grow abundantly on every dry bank in the kingdom, — is altogether omitted. The same neglect is observable in *Achyranthes*, *Aconitum*, and *Acrostichum*. — *Adoxa*, a plant by no means uncommon in this country, is not mentioned as a native. — *Ajuga reptans*, frequent in every shady place, and *A. pyramidalis*, which is indeed a rarer species, are also passed unnoticed as British plants. — *Arbutus uva ursi* is said to be abundant in Sweden and other parts of the continent: but the compiler has not stated that it is a native of our own soil, though it appears in great abundance on the mountains of Wales and Cumberland, and in the Highlands of Scotland. Similar omissions are not unfrequent through the whole work: but it would be needless to quote more.

We have detected some errors in the spelling of the names of plants, as *Azalia* for *Azalea*, *Buddlea* for *Buddleia*. Some of these are perhaps typographical: but others, which are uniformly wrong wherever they occur, must be charged to the compiler. We must also correct a glaring mistake with regard to the flour or meal of the Cassava root, (*Jatropha manihot*, Lin.) which, it is asserted, is spread two or three inches thick on the heated iron plate for the purpose of being converted into bread. We know on the contrary that it is spread very thin; for the cake, after having

having been consolidated by means of heat, is not in general thicker than the 12th part of an inch.* From the author's mode of expression in the same paragraph, we should be led to conclude that the noxious quality of the root of *cassava*, which is a deadly poison to almost every animal except the goat, is removed merely by rubbing the root on a copper grater; whereas this is effected by squeezing out the juice from the meal introduced into a cloth bag, which is then subjected to strong pressure. The meal, thus freed from the poisonous juice, is then baked in the form of thin cakes, and becomes a very wholesome and nourishing food. We must inform the compiler, moreover, that the grater employed in the West Indies is commonly of tin plate, which is a far safer utensil than one of copper, for this purpose. — The omission of names, to which references have been made, exhibits another instance of unpardonable negligence in the compiler; which is remarkably exemplified in the article *insect-diseases*, from which a reference is made to *vegetable insect-diseases*, to *puceron*, *vine-fretter*, and *red spider*: but these words have no place whatever in the order of the alphabet; and thus some discussions of no small importance to the naturalist, as well as to the practical gardener, are entirely passed over.

Other subjects connected with the theory and practice of horticulture, as the arrangement and disposition of gardens and orchards, the description of the necessary implements, the preparation of manures, the construction of buildings for the protection of plants, and for the increase of temperature to promote their growth, as green-houses, and hot-houses, occupy a considerable portion of the work; and they meet with that share of attention and discussion which their importance, according to the views of the compiler, seemed to require, or as the materials within his reach were more or less abundant. In short, the plan of the work approaches so very nearly to that of Miller's Dictionary, that it may be regarded as a close imitation of the latter. Indeed we see no difference, except in the account of the improvements proposed by more recent authors; and we do not perceive that the execution is marked by any superiority.

From a book of this kind, it would be difficult to select passages for the purpose of quotation, which would be interesting and useful, or would compensate for the space which they must necessarily occupy in our pages. Some of our readers, however, may be amused by comparing the productions of their own gardens with the following account of gooseberries, which is taken from a list of the largest new sorts shewn in Lancashire in the Summer of 1800, with their colour and weight, as communicated

communicated to Mr. Forsyth by Messrs. McNiven, nurserymen, Manchester. We mention only a few of each kind.

<i>Red Gooseberries.</i>		dwt.	gr.
Alcock's King	-	16	15
Boardman's Royal Oak	-	15	4
Fisher's Conqueror	-	17	19
Mason's Hercules	-	13	16
Taylor's Volunteer	-	16	17

<i>Yellow Gooseberries.</i>			
Brundrit's Sir Sydney	-	15	22
Hill's Golden Gourd	-	13	17
— Royal Sovereign	-	17	10
Parkinson's Goldfinder	-	14	5

<i>Green Gooseberries.</i>			
Blakeley's Chissel	-	17	0
Dean's Lord Hood	-	15	10
Mill's Langley Green	-	16	2
Smith's Green Mask	-	13	20
Yates's Duke of Bedford	-	14	11

<i>White Gooseberries.</i>			
Adams's Snow Ball	-	12	22
Atkinson's White-Hall	-	14	8
Chapman's Highland White	-	12	0
Kenyon's White Noble	-	13	6
Woodward's White-Smith	-	17	2

For the weight and whimsical names of many others, we must refer to the entire list, under *Ribes*.

At the end of the II^d. volume, a communication is introduced from Mr. Buonaiuti, gardener to Lord Holland, containing the history of two species of *Dahlia*, a new genus of plants, which were brought from the hilly parts of Mexico; and of which we have already furnished our readers with some account, from the Transactions of the Horticultural Society. (See Rev. Vol. 60. N.S. p. 272, and 273.)

Sixty plates, with figures of plants, very well engraved by Sansom, after accurate and truly characteristic drawings by Edwards, accompany this work: but we do not see in what way the representation of very common plants, such as the Lily of the Valley, the White Lily, or the Sweet William, can afford any necessary illustration either to botanical science or practical gardening. Nine additional engravings are given, representing plans, sections, and elevations of mushroom-houses, bark-pits, cucumber-frames, conservatories, melon-frames, hot-houses, and hot-walls, ice-houses, peach and succession-houses, vinery or grape-

grape-houses, with the plan of a garden, and figures of various garden-implements.

Notwithstanding the compiler's prefatory eulogium on the advantages of the *accessible* and convenient form of a Dictionary, we have strong objections to that method of arrangement; and we could easily shew, from the work before us, that the subject, treated in this manner, is attended with numerous inconveniences, and is in many respects really *inaccessible*. It must be obvious, from the slightest consideration, that the same topics might be introduced with nearly equal advantage under different names; and this being the case, a reader who wishes to consult a work of this kind will be often at a loss to know under what term he may find the desired information. Nay, sometimes, from the peculiar or mistaken views of the compiler, it may be introduced under a very different name from that which might naturally be supposed; and thus, without very copious and accurate references, which are not always made by dictionary-manufacturers, the reader is left to grope in the dark, and in vain attempts to gain the clue that would lead him to the discussion of the point which he is desirous of considering.

Objections of equal weight may be adduced against *Monthly Calendars* or *Remembrancers*, *Directories* or *Assistants*, and the numerous other titles and forms under which treatises on horticulture have been presented to the world. Since the rules and directions laid down in such works refer chiefly to particular weeks and months, they become preposterous in our variable and uncertain climate; in which we sometimes see, during a fine season, the garden-operations, that are recommended to be performed in April, fully completed in March; while, on other occasions, from the unfavourable state of the elements, the labours of May must be delayed till June.

These considerations, on which we have not room to expatiate, induce us to wish that some literary persons possessed of sufficient knowledge of practical gardening would bring together in a systematic form the materials of this important subject, as at present widely scattered in dictionaries, calendars, remembrancers, &c.: so that kindred topics might be fully and finally discussed under the same head, instead of partial and repeated recurrence under different names, as in dictionaries, or of the monthly repetition of short notices, as in calendars. Were the system of our knowledge in horticulture digested and arranged in the way which we have ventured to suggest, and accompanied by the valuable appendages of a full table of contents, and a copious and accurate index, we have no hesitation in asserting that it might assume as *accessible* and convenient

venient a form as any dictionary that has yet appeared. A treatise on this science, in which the subject might be amply and methodically elucidated, is at this moment a great desideratum.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For MAY, 1811.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. II. *Address to the Practical Farmers of Great Britain*, recommending an entire Change of System in the Mode of cultivating Tillage Land, by the regular Observance of which, their Labour and Expence will be much diminished, and their Profits considerably augmented. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. Crosby and Co. 1810.

Dr. Richard Worthington, of Worcester, the author of this pamphlet, raises his quill against the common broad-cast, or, as he terms it, random system of husbandry, and employs all his eloquence in recommending to general adoption the drill and horse-hoeing mode of culture. He condemns the custom of broad-cast, on account of the prodigious waste of seed which it occasions; as also on the score of its encouraging weeds, and precluding the subsequent cleaning and earthing between the rows, by which the plants of corn are advanced to maturity. On the other hand, the drilling and horse-hoeing culture, introduced by Tull, is stated to be exempt from every objection that can be urged against the broad-cast method.

‘There is, *first*, no prodigal waste of seed: *secondly*, no failing of the crops: *thirdly*, no expensive labour to obtain a crop: *fourthly*, no difficulty in supplying your crop with fresh and repeated nourishment to the latest period of its growth: *fifthly*, your plants will not be stunted and fall short of their full growth: *sixthly*, no course of crops is requisite to prepare for a wheat crop: you may grow wheat, unremittingly, on the same acres: *seventhly*, no fallowing, except the *productive* fallowing which constantly accompanies the growing of your crop: *eighthly*, no green weeds to harvest and haul to your rick, to thrash with your corn, and to be eaten with your bread: *ninthly*, no disproportionate demand of manure by your tillage land, to the present detriment and future starvation of your pastures and meadows.’

The saving of seed by this practice is certainly very considerable. Instead of sowing, according to the broad-cast husbandry, from eight to twelve pecks per acre, the drill system requires no more than from nine to twelve quarts effectually to sow the same quantity of ground; and therefore Dr. W. contends that *seven parts in eight* of the seed sown broad-cast are thrown away.

Moreover, by sowing the corn in drills of a sufficient distance from each other (*thirty inches*) to admit the subsequent use of the horse-hoe between them, weeds are not only destroyed, but the plants are encouraged to *tiller*, (properly *tellure*,) and to bring the grain to

the most complete maturity. Dr. Worthington lays great stress on the condition in which the land is kept by this process :

‘ I have said that the land will be for ever in heart — I repeat this assurance — It will be found, on experience, that, by keeping the intervals between the rows of corn regularly under the plough, and by thus preserving the soil open, loose and tender, it will be so fertilized by the action of the sun, by rain, by frosts, by the atmosphere, and, most of all, by the *dew of Heaven*, as to require very little aid from the dung-cart for several years together. The tilth will always be fine : the plants, instead of being locked up, and root bound, in a hard, baked, impenetrable substance, will extend their roots vigorously, and at liberty, into a finely pulverized and fresh soil, or pasture ; and while a good crop of wheat is growing, the land is enjoying the constant advantages of a winter and summer fallow ; and as soon as one crop of wheat has been harvested, is in perfect condition to receive the seed of another — you grow wheat, and you grow nothing but wheat ; — you are not holding land at two or three pounds per acre, for the cultivation of weeds and trumpery.’

Since Dr. W. urges the adoption of garden-culture in the growth of corn, he is adverse to large farms ; in which the nice cultivation here recommended cannot be generally adopted. He laments that the little farmer, who supplied the markets with the various articles of smaller live stock, is a character now almost lost to society.

ELECTRICITY.

Art. 12. *An Essay on the History, Practice, and Theory of Electricity*. By John Bywater. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1810.

As we might infer from its title, this treatise is divided into three parts, containing an account of the historical, practical, and theoretical branches of the science. The history is confessedly taken, in a great measure, from the work of Dr. Priestley, and gives a brief sketch of the principal discoveries that were made in electricity, to the period of Dr. Franklin’s experiments. The practical part, although not so full as some other works of a similar kind, may be commended as being clear and intelligible. The theoretical part is, however, that which may be thought to require the most attention ; because here the author, after having endeavoured to prove that all former theories and hypotheses designed to explain the phenomena of electricity are perfectly inadequate for this purpose, proposes one that differs from any which has been hitherto brought into view, and is established on entirely novel principles.

Dr. Franklin’s hypothesis being almost universally adopted, Mr. Bywater properly commences by examining it, and by pointing out those parts which are obscure, and such as are assumed without sufficient evidence. The two leading propositions to which he objects are, that glass is not permeable by the electric fluid, and that the particles of this fluid are possessed of a power of repulsion. It would appear that these data were assumed, in the first instance, in consequence of their affording an easy solution of the phenomena

Rev. May, 1811.

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attending the Leyden experiment of the coated jar: but Mr. B. attempts, by means of an apparatus consisting of two coated jars communicating with each other, to shew that they are inconsistent with the facts. The experiment forms the foundation of his reasoning; and yet it appears to us that it is by no means either satisfactory or unobjectionable. He places the outside coating of one jar *A*, in contact with the knob and consequently the inside coating of another jar *B*; then he says that, according to the Franklinian hypothesis, the electric fluid must be repelled from the outside of the jar *A*, and lodged in the inside of the jar *B*, and that the outsides of both the jars should be negative and the insides positive. This statement appears to us to be liable to an evident objection; that, while the outside coating of *A* and the inside coating of *B* are united by a metallic communication, they must be in the same state of electricity; so that the experiment and all the deductions from it fall to the ground.

The hypothesis which Mr. Bywater wishes to establish, in opposition to that of Dr. Franklin, is that which supposes the existence of two electric fluids; which has frequently been quoted, and has some respectable advocates. The ideas of Mr. B. are, however, very different in many respects from those which are generally adopted, besides this particular point of the two species of electricity. We shall lay before our readers his own statement of his three fundamental positions:

‘1st. There are two electric fluids; which are composed of caloric and the constituent parts of the atmosphere. In the excitation of electricity by the electrical machine, the air is decomposed, its two gases are more closely united to caloric, or matter of heat, by the attrition of the cylinder and rubber, and constitute two distinct electric fluids.

‘2nd. These fluids can pass through the best electric bodies, but cannot pervade the interior of good conducting substances, though they can pass along the surface of the latter with inconceivable ease and velocity.

‘3rd. When an electric body is charged, — for example, a pane of glass, or a Leyden phial, — a small portion of the electric fluid is retained on one side of the charged electric; which, in the act of discharging, excites a considerable portion of fresh electricity, and gives birth to the most singular part of the Leyden phenomena.’

A number of pages are devoted to the illustration and proof of these different points. We must decline to follow Mr. Bywater through all his reasonings: but, after a careful perusal of his work, we deem ourselves justified in asserting that, however successful he may have been in proving the weakness of the opinions which he opposes, he has not been equally happy in substantiating his own; his arguments not being always conclusive, nor his experiments always applicable. Still we must acknowledge that the considerations which he offers on the subject are worthy of attention; that he writes in a clear and perspicuous manner; and that he always treats his opponents with liberality and candor.

Art.

POLITICS.

Art. 13. *The Principles of Currency and Exchanges applied to the Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the high Price of Gold Bullion, &c. &c.* By Coutts Trotter, Esq. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 80. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

Mr. Trotter may be ranked among the most decided advocates who have come forwards in this question on the side of the Bank. He states boldly that no excess of bank-paper exists, that our currency is not depreciated, and that the high price of bullion is wholly owing to the amount of our foreign expenditure, and the disordered state of our foreign trade. Our readers will be aware that we agree with him, in a great measure, on the latter points, and that we think that too much has been said about excess of paper: but we apprehend that Mr. Trotter commits a material oversight in attaching no importance to the non-convertibility of our paper, without which it must be perfectly clear that the fall of the exchange would neither have been so great nor of such long duration. He lays great stress (p. 10.) on the wish of individuals to keep little money in their hands, on account both of the hazard and of the loss of interest; a disposition which he considers as sufficiently strong to restrain, at all times, the issue of paper within proper limits. The manner in which notes are returned on the Bank he explains at considerable length, in nearly the same way in which Mr. Bosanquet represented it. The amount of country-bank-circulation he computes (page 13.) at twenty-five millions; and the amount of Bank of England discounts he supposes (p. 19.) to be on an average nearly ten millions. — He next enlarges on the causes which, in his opinion, have called for an augmented issue of Bank of England-notes, and mentions, among others, the well-known fact that country-bankers now keep their reserve stock in bank-notes instead of gold. He then proceeds to comment on the progressive depreciation of money, and reckons taxation as a principal source of that alarming evil. One of the clearest passages of the pamphlet is the comparison (p. 49, 50, 51.) of the price of gold and rate of exchange, which Mr. Trotter enumerates in opposite columns; an arrangement of no little utility in freeing the difficult inquiry from its obscurity. He is less successful in an attempt to controvert the principles expressed in the Bullion-Report; an effort in which the advocates of the Bank will generally be found to fail. Of his conclusions, the most interesting is that which regards the question of cash-payments. Here Mr. Trotter steers a middle course, admitting (p. 78.) that it would be extremely desirable to effect the resumption, but that the present is not the fit season.

On the whole, this is a pamphlet of considerable interest, both for style and matter, and may be read with advantage even by those who are inclined to dissent from several of its doctrines.

Art. 14. *The Speech of Stephen Cattley, Esq. at the Bank of England, 21st March 1811, shewing that the present high Price of Bullion is owing to the indiscriminate Grant of Licences to Foreign Ships.* 8vo. 1s. Richardson.

Like several other mercantile men, Mr. Cattley is of opinion that the true way to re-establish our exchanges is to cut short our large importations of continental produce. To render this reduction of our trade less unpalatable, he dwells on the circumstance of their being wholly conveyed in neutral shipping; in consequence of which, neither our navigation nor our ship-building interests would be sufferers by the diminution: the only inconvenience would consist in an enhancement of the commodities; an injury not to be put in competition, in his opinion, with the more serious loss resulting from a disordered exchange. This method, our readers will observe, is altogether different from that which we are disposed to recommend; namely, a restoration of free traffic to neutrals, especially to those on the other side of the Atlantic. Bonaparte, we believe, would be obliged to follow the example, and the reinstatement of commercial intercourse would bring back the exchanges to their natural level.

In answer to the animadversions on the exorbitancy of Bank-profits, Mr. Cattley makes (p. 19.) a recapitulation of the dividends since the first institution of the Company, and contends that the gains have been less rapid than those of other associations, such as the New River Company, the Royal Exchange Assurance, the West India Docks, the Hull Docks, &c. In the event of a compulsory order to resume cash-payments, he presumes (p. 12.) that the Bank would demand from Government the six millions at present advanced on loan, and would proceed to cancel them. The next step towards reduction would be, he conceives, a diminution of mercantile discounts, till an extinction was effected to the amount in all of ten millions of Bank of England-notes; the result of which would be a correspondent reduction of country-bank-paper. The distress produced by so large an abstraction of our circulating medium he calculates, and well he may, as likely to be far greater than any which we have yet experienced.—The rest of the pamphlet is appropriated to encomiums on the plan of the sinking-fund, and to a censure on the practice of granting licenses.—The appendix contains several arguments in opposition to Mr. Huskisson.

Art. 15. *A Letter to Davies Giddy, Esq. M.P.* in answer to his Plain Statement of the Bullion-question. By Samuel Banfill. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

Mr. Banfill is not willing to acknowledge the existence of a depreciation of our paper, but confesses the necessity of withdrawing the Bank-exemption from cash-payments as soon as political circumstances will permit. He is of opinion that the price of gold has advanced generally throughout Europe; and he has embraced the notion that the state of our exchanges is not affected by the nature of our currency. He even goes the length (p. 19.) of excluding altogether the influence of exchange on the present question, and pronounces the pound sterling to be the standard of all value in England. It is needless to say that we dissent from such positions as these: in fact, the only part of the letter with which we can agree is that which enumerates (p. 24.) the causes of the progressive rise of
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commodities, an evil produced in a much greater degree by the operation of war and of taxes than by the substitution of paper for coin.

Art. 16. *A few Facts stated in answer to the Report of the Bullion-Committee, &c. &c.* By an Annuitant. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

This is one of the best of the minor tracts on the Bullion-question which have hitherto fallen under our observation. The author is among the very few writers and speakers on this subject who have paid attention to the fall of our exchanges in 1800 and 1801, and who have traced the correspondence between that period of distress and the present. He enumerates (p. 13.) the various afflicting events which have concurred of late to befall our trade, particularly the unproductiveness of our exports. To judge from the Custom-house-Books, our exports have greatly exceeded our imports: but in these no account is taken of the material deduction which should be made on the score of irregular payments; though a large quantity of our Heligoland, Baltic, and Malta exports has failed in yielding substantial returns to the shippers. It follows, as this 'Annuitant' justly remarks, (p. 15.) that it is the amount of our foreign debts, not the excess of our bank-notes, which has been chiefly instrumental in robbing us of our metallic currency.

He next proceeds to controvert the opinion of the Committee in respect to the influence of bank-paper on the price of commodities, and declares (p. 20.) that, although the class of persons to which he belongs have been held out in the strongest light to public sympathy, he, for one, is perfectly satisfied with the manner in which he has been treated. The proper way to begin a cure for the evil, he remarks, (p. 26.) is by restoring the exchanges. The substance of his pamphlet is condensed (p. 23 and 24.) into five propositions, pointing to nearly the same conclusions as the resolutions submitted to Parliament by Mr. Vansittart: but the extent to which the Bullion-question has already occupied our pages prevents us from transcribing this summary of the 'Annuitant's' reasoning, and makes it necessary for us to limit our comments on his propositions to the observation that their tendency is of the right kind, though the mode in which they are expressed and applied is too absolute.

Art. 17. *Remarks on the supposed Depreciation of Paper-Currency in England.* By a Merchant. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

In stating that this pamphlet takes up the question on the same side as the preceding, we must add that the 'Merchant' writes in a strain of reasoning with which we are much less disposed to concur. The chief argument in it is that sterling coin, and not bullion, forms the real standard of our paper; and, in pursuance of this opinion, the remarker endeavours to justify the notable assertion of one of the mercantile witnesses, who were examined before the Bullion-Committee, that "gold bullion was no more the measure of bank-notes than indigo or broad cloth."—In proportion as this author is indifferent on the subject of bullion, he is anxious on that of coin; and he can by no means acknowledge himself a convert to the doctrine of Mr. Huskinson and the Bullion-Committee, that it would be good policy to permit the export of coin as freely as that of any other commodity.

The greatest part of the pamphlet is devoted to strictures on the reasoning of Mr. Huskisson, who is accused (p. 32.) of refusing to admit any other information than that which coincided with the Bullion-Report. From the chief part, however, of these strictures, we must express our dissent; as indeed we must from the tenets of the author generally, with the exception of the influence which he very properly attributes (p. 18.) to the course of exchange in raising the price of gold.

L A W.

Art. 18. *Hints for Reform in the Criminal Law*, in a Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, Bart. M.P. By a late Member of Parliament. 8vo. pp. 30. Mawman. 1811.

Justly does the late M.P. regard it as a pleasing sight to behold a Gentleman of the first eminence, in an honourable profession, devote his few spare moments to objects which ordinary humanity seems to consider as not within its sphere. Every philanthropist must share with him in this feeling, and congratulate the ill-fated beings who have obtained so distinguished an individual as the person to whom this pamphlet is addressed to be their advocate, and to echo (though hitherto unsuccessfully) the dictates of justice on their behalf in the ears of rulers and legislators.

The service attended by Sir Samuel Romilly we have ever conceived to be of a higher order and of deeper interest than it at first appears. Duly to appreciate it, we should ascertain what additional health and vigour would be imparted to the body politic, by the proper and judicious treatment of its diseased and gangrened parts. We cannot neglect the latter without proportionate injury to the former. Incalculable good would arise from giving the public mind a bent in this direction; it would increase the sphere of thought, extend our views, improve our feelings of humanity, and strengthen our sense of duty by enlarging the field for the exercise of it. ●

We rejoice that the Bills, lately proposed by Sir Samuel Romilly, embraced a system of punishment; since we are persuaded that no reform in our penal statutes, sanguinary as they are, will be permitted to pass till such a system has been digested. We hailed the generous and beneficent enterprize when it was first announced, and extolled the noble daring of him who feared not to face the host which ever appears in battle array as soon as any thing in the shape of reform is attempted; and we are not less disposed to applaud the resolute spirit which an unmerited failure is unable to shake in its great and beneficent purposes. We hope that it will still persevere. It will be to the honour of this age to have *attempted* the reform of our criminal code; and the period of carrying it into effect, whenever it arrives, will form a proud epoch in British annals.

We beg here to refer our legal readers to the xiith article of our Appendix, published with this number, for an account of the new French Penal Code.

Art. 19. *An Abridgment of the Law of Nisi Prius*. By William Selwyn, jun. Esq., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Second Edition, with Additions. 2 Vols. Large Octavo. Clarke. 1810.

It

It is observed by this learned compiler, in his preface, that, 'considering the utility and importance of the subject,' it cannot fail to excite surprize that a well digested treatise on the Law of Actions remained for a great length of time a desideratum in the profession. The first compilation deserving of notice was an anonymous publication in the year 1767, intituled "An Introduction to the Law relative to trials at Nisi Prius." The same work was *republished* by Mr. Justice Buller in the year 1772. 'It is very remarkable,' he observes, 'that at this day so many different opinions should exist as to the real author of this compilation, some persons ascribing it to Mr. Ford, others to the late Mr. J. Clive, and others to Mr. Bathurst :' but Mr. Selwyn informs us that the dedication of the first edition of it to Lord Apsley places the question beyond the reach of controversy ; since it is there expressly stated to owe its origin to a collection of notes formerly made by the noble patron for his own private use.

'Mr. Bathurst's book,' continues Mr. Selwyn, 'having passed through several editions, was succeeded by a similar work, intituled, "A Digest of the Law of Actions and Trials of Nisi Prius," by Mr. Espinasse, of which there have been three editions. The compiler of the following pages conceived that a treatise intended as a companion to the sittings at London and Middlesex, and on the circuit, might be cast into a more convenient form than that adopted by either of the former writers ; and that the cases might be abridged with greater accuracy and precision. Under this impression, the first edition of the present work was compiled.'

Mr. Selwyn appears to advantage by the side of his predecessors, since he may boast of more method than the first, and of more precision and accuracy than the last. His volumes have been formed with commendable care and diligence, and well deserve the success which they have experienced. Mr. S. has paid considerable attention to the arrangement of his matter, and to his style ; although greater perfection in both these respects was attainable. If the statements, however, do not claim superior neatness and clearness, they are not obscure, and are always worthy of reliance. — The practitioner and the younger barrister will regret that the work has not more of detail, and that the Index is not more copious.

Art. 20. *Advice on the Study of the Law* ; with Directions for the Choice of Books, addressed to Attorneys' Clerks. 8vo. pp. 157. 5s. Boards. Taylor. 1810.

This outline of a liberal professional education reflects credit on the general information and judgment of the author. A great part of the tract is of general interest, and intituled to general perusal : but it proceeds on a scale which is too extensive for the greater number of legal practitioners, and is adapted only to those of a superior description. It is not unworthy of the attention of the candidates for the higher branch of the profession. The requisites to success and distinction are stated in detail, while a deep sense of honour and sentiments of delicacy are inculcated. — Aspiring youth may learn from these pages the sacrifices which must be made to acquire professional eminence ; and though the model which is here exhibited is highly finished, let it not discourage the well disposed and assiduous

duous tyro. Much may be done by diligence, perseverance, method, and time.

Art. 21. *Clarke's Bibliotheca Legum*; or a complete Catalogue of the Common and Statute Law-Books of the United Kingdom, with an Account of their Dates and Prices. Originally compiled by J. Worrall; now further improved, and arranged in a new manner, and interspersed with Observations from the best Authorities in the principal Works; with numerous Additions and Corrections not to be found in any other Law Catalogue now extant. By John Clarke, Law Bookseller. 12mo. pp. 462. Boards. Clarke. 1811.

Mr. C. has here supplied the most complete Law-Catalogue now extant. We wish, indeed, that it had been more full with respect to works on the civil and canon laws, and on general jurisprudence: but, as far as it relates to English law-books, it is satisfactory.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 22. *Anatomical Examinations*. A complete Series of Anatomical Questions, with Answers. The Answers arranged so as to form an Elementary System of Anatomy. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Highley.

A neat little compendium, which will be beneficial to those for whose use it is intended.

Art. 23. *A Dissertation on the Retroversion of the Womb*, including some Observations on Extra-uterine Gestation. By S. Merriman, M. D. Physician Man-midwife to the Westminster Dispensary, &c. 8vo. 3s. Callow. 1810.

This pamphlet treats on subjects of much interest, both in theory and in practice, and it affords new and important information in both these respects. The subject of the work, in conformity with the statement in the title-page, is twofold; it commences with some observations on the retroversion of the uterus, and concludes with remarks on extra-uterine fœtuses.

The knowledge of that particular displacement of the uterus, which consists in the fundus falling backwards and downwards, so as to occupy the space between the vagina and the rectum, is of late acquisition. M. Gregoire, who lectured in Paris about the middle of the last century, was 'the first person who appears to have entertained a tolerably accurate idea of the nature of these accidents.' Mr. Wall, who was a pupil of Gregoire, first made the subject known in this country: but it was by the exertions of Dr. Hunter that the information was disseminated among the profession at large. Since that time, many cases have been recorded, and the situation into which the parts are brought seems to be generally understood. One of the most urgent and painful symptoms of this complaint is the suppression of urine, and consequent distension of the bladder; which Dr. Hunter seemed to consider as the consequence of the unnatural situation of the uterus, whereas Dr. Denman endeavoured to prove that the over distension of the bladder is the origin of the evil, and the

the cause of the displacement of the uterus, Dr. Deuman's opinion is now generally admitted; and whether the hypothesis be correct or not, it has certainly had the effect of introducing a better plan of treatment, since it led the practitioner to give his attention to the state of the bladder, instead of making any direct attempts to replace the uterus.

It has hitherto been always taken for granted that the retroversion of the uterus never occurs except in the early stages of pregnancy, and that, as the process of gestation advances, the parts become restored to their natural position. This, we believe, is the doctrine which has been maintained by every writer on the subject. Dr. Meriman, on the contrary, attempts to shew that the retroversion may continue to the period of parturition, that it may produce a formidable obstacle to delivery, and that it may terminate in a rupture or ulceration of the uterus, by which the fœtus escapes into the abdominal cavity; and that in this way those cases originate, which are supposed to have been extra-uterine from the first period of gestation. In order to substantiate this opinion, Dr. M. takes a review of some of the most accurately detailed cases of this description, and very ingeniously points out a variety of circumstances; which would lead to the conclusion that they were uterine fœtuses in those cases in which the womb became retroverted, and the fœtus remained in its proper receptacle until the natural period of parturition. To this doctrine we are much disposed to give our decided assent; because it is rational in its foundation, and accords much better with the general laws of physiology, than that which has been commonly adopted. The following positions form a summary of the opinions which are defended in this work; and which, if not demonstrated, are at least supported by intrinsic probability, and by a number of striking facts.

‘First,—That the uterus, which has become retroverted in the earlier stages of pregnancy, may continue in that state till the full period of gestation has elapsed.

‘Secondly,—That, when this time is perfected; pains will be excited which, under favourable circumstances, will occasionally be sufficient to expel the child through the natural passages.

‘Thirdly,—That circumstances not being favourable for the expulsion of the child, a rupture of the uterus may take place, or so great a degree of inflammation, or fever, may come on, as speedily to cause the mother's death.—Or,

‘Fourthly,—That the fœtus may be expelled by an ulcerative process through the parietes of the uterus into the rectum or vagina.’

Art. 24. Description of an Affection of the Tibia induced by Fever, with Observations on the Treatment of this Complaint. By T. Whately, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Callow. 1810.

The affection, which this pamphlet professes to describe, ‘is a disease of the Tibia, in which a small opening is generally discovered in the integuments covering its internal side, through which a probe may

may be passed into the cavity of the bone, where one or more loose pieces of bone are usually found, which being confined, from their being often of larger dimensions than the opening in the Tibia, prevent the healing of the ulcer.' Almost all the cases which the author has seen having occurred subsequently to an attack of fever, he is led to suppose that a necessary connection exists between the complaints, and to regard it 'as a febrile affection of the part.' Whether any advantage be gained by the use of a new term, and that term involving a kind of hypothesis, we will not decide: but we should prefer the old name *necrosis*, which is sanctioned by use, and which appears strictly to apply to the cases of Mr. Whately. With respect to their having any connection with fever, we entertain some doubt; because we know that the complaint has never occurred to some practitioners whose opportunities of observing fevers have been very extensive: but we are too well acquainted with Mr. Whately's character to doubt the truth of his statements, although we may question the validity of his deductions.

The cure depends ultimately on the removal of the portion of dead bone; and as it often happens that this portion is larger than the aperture, some method of increasing the size of the opening must be adopted. Mr. W. recommends for this purpose his favourite remedy, the *kali purum*; and it appears certainly to have produced the desired effect. Yet we cannot but consider it as a remedy very ill adapted to the nature of the part on which it is to act, and as less likely to produce an easy and expeditious cure than a cutting instrument.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 25. *A Grammar of the Spanish Language*, in which the Rules are illustrated by Examples, selected from the best Authors. By C. Laisné, Teacher of Languages. 12mo. Dulau, &c.

A practice has long prevailed among the compilers of works which profess merely to introduce the student to an acquaintance with a particular foreign language, of swelling their publications with speculations on general grammar; and these speculations are often founded on confused and erroneous principles, tending only to harass and distract the attention, to create difficulty, and to increase expence.—These, and other superfluities, Mr. Laisné has rejected; and we owe it to the general excellence of his plan to point out one or two imperfections, the correction of which will render the work more valuable when it comes to a second edition. At pages 1. and 3. the sounds of the E, and of the initial R, are not accurately expressed. At pages 27. and 28. Mr. L. has given *lo* as well as *le*, as the accusative of the personal pronoun. We believe that this blunder is to be found in all the Spanish grammars which have been published in this country: but it is particularly reprobated by the Spanish Academy; (*Gramática Castellana*, part 1. cap. 6. sect. 13.) and we know, from experience, that it produces much perplexity and confusion in writing the language.

We wish that the author had confined his translations to the dialogues: but indeed he apologizes for his English, which in some places

places is unintelligible without consulting the Spanish, and in others presents a different meaning from the original. Instead of a literal translation, an appropriate vocabulary might have been prefixed to each set of examples, with much greater advantage to the learner; who would thus have been gradually brought on to translate by himself. We highly approve Mr. Laisné's alphabetical table of the different forms assumed by the irregular verbs; since the opportunity of referring to such a list relieves the beginner from the repulsive and servile task of burthening his memory with an unmeaning and incoherent mass of words.

Art. 26. *A Grammar of the Portuguese Language*, in which the Rules are illustrated by Examples selected from the best Authors. By C. Laisné. 12mo. Dulau, &c.

The plan of this work corresponds with that of the preceding; and the same general remarks will apply to it.

Art. 27. *Auswahl vorzüglicher Stellen, &c.* German Extracts from the best German Authors, for translating into English. By George Crabb. 2d Edition, revised and enlarged. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Boosey. 1811.

Art. 28. *Die Deutsche Blumenlese, &c.* Flowers of German Literature, being a Selection of Pieces in Prose and Verse from the best German Authors; intended to serve the advanced Scholar as a progressive Introduction to the German Language, and the Admirers of continental Literature with a series of agreeable and instructive Reading. By W. Bell. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Boosey.

The main object of both these publications is the same. Mr. Crabb designs his extracts principally for beginners, and has therefore added a very copious dictionary of words and phrases, with many notes, to assist the novice: but he has exercised little judgment, and shewn a very indifferent taste in the selection of his specimens. He seems to be a great admirer of the superficial sentiment and flippant style of *Kotzebue*: but his compilation, moreover, loses almost all value by its innumerable typographical errors of the grossest kind, by its incorrect and changeable orthography and punctuation, and by many false translations and explanations; which prove either a great want of knowledge, or great negligence, equally inexcusable in one who pretends to facilitate the access to a language.

The *Florilegium*, to which Mr. Bell has signed his name in the preface, is intended for the more advanced student, and furnishes no kind of grammatical help to the reader. It is free from the defects of which we have complained in Mr. Crabb's Extracts; and the selection is not only more judicious, but affords a greater variety. It would however have been considerably improved, if it had been drawn from still more various sources, and thus led to a more extensive acquaintance with modern German authors. It is very singular that not one specimen is given from the writings of Wieland and Herder, nor from the prose works of Gothe; and the whole furnishes ground for the conjecture that it was chance, rather than a general view of German literature, which guided the compiler's choice. To those

those who have no farther object in perusing such a publication than to learn the language, that circumstance will be of no great consequence; and to them we can safely recommend this little book.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 29. *Sketches of the Physiology of Vegetable Life*. By the Authoress of "Botanical Dialogues." 8vo. pp. 180. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1811.

This small treatise, which is illustrated by fourteen appropriate plates, may be regarded as a perspicuous and interesting epitome of some of the principal facts and observations which relate to the curious and important doctrines of the vegetable economy. The professed object of the fair writer is to be the means 'of extending the present prevailing taste for the nomenclature and classification of plants to the more useful and interesting part of the science, the Physiology of Vegetation.' While we lend our willing testimony to the modesty of her pretensions, and to the easy and unostentatious manner in which she communicates instruction, we ought to apprise our readers that she appears to be familiarly acquainted with the writings of some of the principal authors on the subject, from Grew and Malpighi, to Darwin and Knight. We are less certain that she has directed her attention to the curious experiments and speculations of Bonnet, Sennebler, Poiteaux, and Richard. When she ventures to dissent from opinions which have received the sanction of respectable names, or when she details any experiment of her own, the ingenuity of her reasoning and the diffidence of her manner are equally conspicuous. —We quote the first instances which occur. After having remarked that the annual fall of the leaf has excited the attention of all vegetable physiologists, without hitherto having received satisfactory explanation, she thus proceeds:

'Dr. Smith has classed this phenomenon amongst the diseases of plants*, and compares it to the casting off of worn-out and dis-tempered parts of the animal body. Vrolick's opinion, as we learn from Willdenow, was the same: and by that author we are also informed of the various hypotheses of different writers on this difficult subject†, with which the young physiologist in the science of vegetation should make himself acquainted.

'I hope I shall not be deemed presumptuous in offering an opinion upon the autumnal dropping of foliage, distinct from any which, I believe, has yet appeared before the public. Instead of considering the fall of the leaf as the effect of disease, may it not be esteemed the result of a natural process? May we not suppose leaves to be the parents of the young buds which are found proceeding from their bosoms, by which their juices are absorbed, and which perish only when their offspring have attained their full period of growth? a circumstance so similar to the formation and re-production of bulbs, as to afford strong analogical evidence of its probability; and which is further corroborated by its resemblance to the decay of the fructification of a flower after the maturity of its seminal progeny; and in

* Introduction to Systematical and Physiological Botany, page 342.

† Willdenow's Principles of Botany, page 303.

the reproduction of bulbs we see the newly-formed bulbs so dependent for their growth on the leaf of the preceding year, as frequently to perish if that be cut away,' &c.

'That I might observe the effect which the leaf might have upon the growth of the seedling bulbs of *Crocus*, I took twelve of them, the third year from the period of their germination, and planted them in a garden-pot, in August 1793. In June, 1794, when taken out of the pot, I found they had increased more than double the number, being twenty-seven. In another pot, time and all circumstances the same, I planted twelve others, and cut off the leaves as they appeared above the soil, but not quite so assiduously as ought to have been done: the effect of depriving the bulbs of their leaves, was diminution of both size and quantity; the size of each bulb that had been robbed of its leaf being at least two-thirds smaller than those which had remained in their natural state; and in respect to quantity, six or seven small bulbs were the entire produce from the twelve which had been planted; half of that number, probably, having perished in consequence of the loss of their leaves. Eight of the healthy bulbs were planted again the autumn after their formation, and in April, 1795, were again taken out of the ground. The produce was small both in size and quantity; and having been exposed to much wet and frost, I supposed the bulbs which were planted to have been injured.' — 'I pursued my observations upon *Crocus*-bulbs no farther; but hope they may serve as a foundation for more extended experiments, by some ingenious students in the science of botany, to whom I offer the result of my researches, as forming rather a sketch of that which may be discovered, than of any thing that has yet been thoroughly investigated; not, however, without flattering myself that my experiments may prove a base on which may be raised a valuable superstructure.'

They who are only commencing their botanical career, or who are precluded from the use of foreign or expensive publications, may derive much valuable elementary information from these unassuming and pleasing pages.

The artificial designations and arrangements of plants are useful only in so far as they prepare the way for more important objects of investigation; and although many problems connected with the germination, the gradual developement, and the decay of the vegetable species, remain to be solved, many striking discoveries have also rewarded the patient and skilful inquiries of discerning observers. It is, no doubt, highly desirable that the most prominent of such discoveries should be stated within convenient limits, in the form of continuous discourse, and in language which is suited to the apprehensions of general readers. A work executed on the same principles, and designed to indicate the direct benefits which may be derived, in point of economical uses, from the various description of the vegetable tribes, is still wanting, and is not unworthy of the pen of this fair writer.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. † *A new Defence of the Holy Roman Church against Heretics and Schismatics.* By the Author of *Hore Solitariae*. 12mo. pp. 87. 2s. 6d. Boards. Mathews and Co. 1810.

Cruizing under false colours. The cross, the symbol of Catholicism, is hoisted on the Ensign-staff : but the Captain of the vessel would nevertheless rejoice in an opportunity of *blowing the Pope out of water*. A sly Protestant here affects to defend the Romish Church, while in fact he exposes her to scorn and ridicule ; and, by a dextrous management of irony, he will perhaps effect more than could have been accomplished by dry reasoning. If the grin be occasionally too broad, it is on the whole well sustained ; and we are inclined to believe that Catholics who have humour will not only give the writer credit for this new defence, but will themselves laugh at the string of legendary miracles which he has recorded in honour of their church. His arguments in support of the doctrines of the Roman Church are equally ironical ; and though this part of the work may be felt by the Catholics to bear hard on them, yet zealous Protestants, who recollect the history of Popish persecutions, will be of opinion that no harder knock is given than the case justifies.

Art. 31. *Remarks on the present State of the Established Church, and the Increase of Protestant Dissenters.* By an attentive Observer. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Matthews and Co. 1810.

This writer avows a partiality for the Established Church, but manifests a much stronger predilection for Calvinistic Methodism ; and he wishes so to new model the national Church that every Methodist preacher may be allowed to declaim from her pulpits. He chooses to include his darling sect under the denomination of Protestant Dissenters ; who, indeed, unless Methodists are so classed, cannot be said to have *increased*. Be this, however, as it may, the accommodation of Methodists in the Establishment is the only point worth consideration, since 'the Christianity of other sects is not Christianity.' —Neither Statesmen nor Bishops are likely to be influenced by the rhetoric of this 'attentive observer ;' who has shewn his cloven foot, while he professes the most generous concern for the welfare of the Church as by law established.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *An Appeal to the British Nation, on the Folly and Criminality of War.* By Irenæus. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co. 1811.

Abstractedly considered, war is the most insensate pursuit in which human beings can be engaged. It is condemned by reason, by religion, and by the heart ; yet it has always prevailed, and it is likely to prevail, unless the passions of men and the state of society undergo very essential alterations. *Flagrante bello*, to declaim against war is to preach to the whirlwind. Meek visionaries may dream of peace : but the prince, the statesman, the hero, the merchant, the contractor, and even the *Christian* minister, will tell us that war is "just and necessary." Elated by gazettes extraordinary, who can endure the tame sentiment that "a bad peace is better than the most prosperous war?" When one war has brought on poverty and exhaustion, we can perceive its folly and criminality : but in a few years we find out another that is "just and necessary," and are ready to begin again. Thus it has always been ; and we suspect that not one musket and sabre less will be made at Birmingham, in consequence of this writer's humane and benevolent appeal.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have finally to reply to *Horatianus*,

1st. As to the power of the initial *s* with another consonant, Ennius and Lucretius will not, we suppose, be quoted as examples of accuracy. Unless the two passages from his juvenile poems be adduced, Virgil has only one instance of a final short vowel before two consonants of the kind in question; and that one instance,—*Ponite; spes sibi quisque*, *Æn.* XI. v 309. is removed by reading *Ponite; quisque sibi spes*; or, according to a still more probable conjecture, Virgil closed the line with *Ponite*: at all events, it is unlikely that it would have survived his intended revision of the *Æneid*. In the Odes and Epistles of Horace, no instance occurs. The Satires, we believe, afford exactly eight. Let, then, exactly eight instances occur in the course of a collection of *Satirical Poems* similar to those of Horace in laxity of style, and of equal length. "*Opere in longo fas est obrepere somnum*;" that is, if the work be among the "*sermones repentes per humum*." But to proceed. *As far as we can trust our memories*, in the proof of a negative, Tibullus has no instance, excepting in the word "*smaragdus*," which twice occurs; and this word also occurs in Lucretius; where we have MS. authority for reading "*maragdus*." We would also adopt this reading in Tibullus.—In Valerius Flaccus, no instance. In Juvenal, none. In Martial, none. In Seneca the Tragedian, none, but a suspected passage. In Claudian, none, with the same exception. In Ausonius, two, but with a various reading to one.—To re-ascend in our authorities, in Catullus, none, but "*unda Scamandri*;" where, if other solutions be rejected, the licence due to a proper name may account for the usage. Now, when we observe that instances in these poets are numerous, of a final vowel being lengthened before the consonants in question, and even before less obstinate consonants, shall we not be justified in excluding the former licence, even as strongly as we did exclude it from Lyric and Heroic Poetry?—Statius supplies three passages in favour of it: but a different reading removes two of them, and the third is "*smaragdus*." In Silius Italicus, the single instance is in the case of a proper name; and, even there, a different reading occurs. Propertius has six passages against us, —one of them "*smaragdus*." In Ovid, as many as eighteen have been quoted: but it is very remarkable that out of these, sixteen are rendered doubtful by various readings, and the remaining two are, each of them, "*smaragdus*." We have stated our case at the lowest point of its strength, when we say that the opposite examples are "*rendered doubtful*."

2dly. Whether Horace, in his few odes, has exhausted all the possible metrical varieties which he would have judged proper, (a question which *Horatianus* asks us,) we cannot say: but it seems wiser to adhere to an imitation of his practice, than to conjecture concerning his opinions.

3dly. It would take more time and leisure than we possess, adequately to discuss the general question concerning those pauses of the metre which do not coincide with the pauses of the sense: but, as to the case before us, although the ancients did not use punctuation in writing, they could not possibly recite their verses so as to make them intelligible to their hearers, without pausing in that manner which would convey their sense; and, consequently, if Horace had recited to his friend Virgil the ode in which the following line occurs—

"*Latatur: Eve! parce, Liber*"—

he must have recited that line with the same pauses in pronunciation as those which are marked by the punctuation above. Therefore, the rhythm of that line is different from the rhythm of

"*Mandavi*

"*Mandavit atas, pande fauces.*"

4thly. We did not ridicule the necessary, but the unnecessary, use of grammatical terms; and we repeat our assertion that the nomenclature of the metrical critic is large enough, when undue appeals to it are made, to deserve the epithet of *voluminous*: for the elegance of which epithet, however, or the strict propriety of the expression "*Alcaic anathema*," we are not eager to contend. *De his nimium*; and were it not that we respect the learning and ingenuity of *Horatianus* too much to be perfectly silent under his remarks, we should on these, as on some other topics, have left him to reconsider his objections. Concerning the 4th line of the stanza, he will assuredly perceive that he mistakes us, if he reads our observations again.

5thly. Neither Virgil nor Horace affords an instance of an open genitive case singular, like *Imperii*. In the line in Virgil, *Æn.* III. 702. where *fluvii* is found, it ought to be read *fluvio*. The licence for which *Horatianus* contends was unknown even to the prose writers of Rome, until the latter part of the reign of Augustus. His observation, as to the fondness of Horace for long words, is strangely irrelevant.

On the subject in question we could say much more: but we have curtailed our arguments, as well as omitted our authorities, throughout this final reply, from the necessity of being concise.

A very remarkable instance of *typographical fallibility* has just come to our knowledge; and we mention it not only as a curious example of the kind, but to prevent any undue assignment of the error which might arise out of the circumstance, if unexplained. In our Number for May, 1810, we took notice of Dr. Charles Burney's Abridgment of Bishop Pearson on the Creed; and in the course of the article we adverted to a minute but important variation from the original text, (p. 34. imaginable, for *in*imaginable,) which we had discovered in our copy of that Abridgment. Of this work, we find, two editions were printed: one on *fine* and the other on more *inferior* paper; the latter was that which we used; and we are now enabled to state that the error not only did not exist in the proof-sheet which the editor revised, but that it does not exist in the *fine*-paper copies. In working the impression, *they* were first thrown off; and though no alteration was afterward made, it appears that some accident must have happened at the press, by which the omitted letters were dropped out, and the error was not remedied because not discovered.—We stated the fact of the difference as we found it, because it essentially altered the meaning of the author, but we neither knew nor conjectured the precise mode in which it occurred; though we are sufficiently conversant with the *incurie* of authors, editors, transcribers, compositors, revisers, and press-men. Even at this distance of time, however, we are glad to record our conviction that the error in question did not rest with the learned Editor.

* * The APPENDIX to Vol. LXIV. of the M. R., containing various interesting articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, is published with this number; and those of our readers to whom it is not sent, at the same time with the Review for January, are requested to transmit their orders to the Bookseller who supplies them.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1811.

ART. I. Southey's *Curse of Kehama*, a Poem.

[Art. concluded from page 69.]

SECTION 10th, *Mount Meru*, opens with some very silly sap-phics ; silly as those far-famed dactylics, out of which ; and every thing like them, Mr. Southey ought long ago to have been ridiculed. Who can endure, in a *full-grown* poet, such can-tering lines as

‘ Manly resentment, fortitude and action,

Womanly goodness.’—

‘ Piety, patience, faith, and resignation,

Love and *devotement*.’

Turpe et miserabile !

On Mount Meru rises the Ganges, in its *first birth* : our readers will remember its *second birth* in the 7th section. This primogeniture of the sacred river is poetically imagined and described ; and hither Kehama's curse does not extend. Ereenia lays Ladurlad and Kailyal by the blessed lake ; whence

— ‘ through many a channel dark and deep,

Their secret way the holy Waters wind,

Till, rising underneath the root

Of the Tree of Life on Hemakoot,

Majestic forth they flow to purify mankind.’

* * * * *

Oh happy Sire, and yet more happy Daughter !

The ethereal gales his agony *aslake**,

His daughter's tears are on his cheek,

His hand is in the water !

Interspersed with a little childishness, and some offensive viola-tions of taste, the succeeding passage may be termed delightful ; and, as the last and best specimen of any length which we can

* The verb to *aslake* may be classed under the *older* phraseology of Spenser, and such as modern usage forbids.

extract from the poem, we here insert it. Some preliminary lines describe the heavenly bower, in which the persecuted wanderers are now reposing; and the writer then proceeds :

‘ Three happy beings are *there here*,
 The Sire, the Maid, the Glendoveer !
 A fourth approaches,—who is this
 That enters in the Bower of Bliss ?
 No form so fair might painter find
 Among the daughters of mankind ;
 For death her beauties hath refin’d,
 And unto her a form hath given
 Fram’d of the elements of Heaven ;
 Pure dwelling-place for perfect mind.
 She stood and gaz’d on sire and child ;
 Her tongue not yet had power to speak,
 The tears were streaming down her cheek ;
 And when those tears her sight beguil’d,
 And still her faltering accents fail’d,
 The Spirit, mute and motionless,
 Spread out her arms for the caress,
 Made still and silent with excess
 Of love and painful happiness.

‘ The Maid that lovely form survey’d ;
 Wistful she gaz’d, and knew her not ;
 But Nature to her heart convey’d
 A sudden thrill, a startling thought,
 A feeling many a year forgot,
 Now like a dream anew recurring,
 As if again in every vein
 Her mother’s milk was stirring.
 With straining neck and earnest eye
 She stretch’d her hands imploringly,
 As if she fain would have her nigh,
 Yet fear’d to meet the wish’d embrace,
 At once with love and awe oppress’d.
 Not so, Ladurlad ; he could trace,
 Though brighten’d with angelic grace,
 His own Yedillian’s earthly face :
 He ran and held her to his breast !
 Oh joy above all joys of Heaven,
 By Death alone to others given,
 This moment hath to him restor’d
 The early-lost, the long deplor’d.

‘ They sin who tell us Love can die.
 With life all other passions fly,
 All others are but vanity.
 In Heaven Ambition cannot dwell,
 Nor Avarice in the vaults of Hell ;
 Earthly these passions of the Earth,
 They perish where they have their birth ;

But

But Love is indestructible.
 Its holy flame for ever burneth,
 From Heaven it came, to Heaven returneth;
 Too oft on Earth a troubled guest,
 At times deceiv'd, at times oppress'd,
 It here is tried and purified,
 Then hath in Heaven its perfect rest:
 It soweth here with toil and care,
 But the harvest-time of Love is there.
 Oh! when a Mother meets on high
 The Babe she lost in infancy,
 Hath she not then, for pains and fears,
 The day of woe, the watchful night,
 For all her sorrow, all her tears,
 An over-payment of delight!

The style of this extract is evidently copied, and with great success, from the *loci communes* of Mr. Scott. We cannot, however, omit to bestow a due portion of ridicule and reprobation on such a line as one of the foregoing, which interrupts the reader in his full career of pleasure:

'But love is indestructible.'

This section, otherwise one of the most pleasing in the volume, is disgraced by the introduction of a paltry divinity; a sort of Heathen-Hindu Cupid, intitled 'Camdeo;' who rides on a lory (or parrot,) and shoots arrows pointed with blossoms of a heating quality, from a bow of sugar-cane furnished with a string of bees! (See Sir W. Jones's Hymn to Camdeo.)

In section 11th, *the Enchantress*, a foul witch called Lorrinite (who is absolutely an improvement on Lucan's Erictho) leagues with Arvalan to disturb the happy party on Mount Meru. Clad in enchanted armour, the wicked *élève* of the Sorceress ascends through the air (not in a sieve) in a chariot drawn by winged dragons: but, as he approaches the Mount, and comes within the sphere of its adamantine rocks, 'all commanding Nature' hurls him

— 'ten thousand thousand* fathoms down,
 Till in an ice-rift, 'mid the eternal snow,
 Foul Arvalan is *stopt*.'

"There's a *stop*," as we say at the game of Pope Joan.

In the 12th section, we are sorry to observe that 'the Sacrifice' is completed, but not the poem!

'The damn'd in Padalon acclaim
 Their hoped Deliverer's name;'

* We have long been aware that 'repetition is the soul of poetry.'
 Mr. S. has shewn us that it is the *body* also.

* * * *

‘Up rose the Rajah through the conquer’d sky,
To seize the Swerga for his proud abode ;
Myriads of evil Genii round him fly,
As royally, on wings of winds, he rode,
And scaled high Heaven, triumphant like a God.’

This is something like poetry, as far as the expression reaches: but there Sternhold and Hopkins claim the chief merit ; while the *original* extravagance of the design is exclusively the property of Mr. Southey.

We had almost forgotten to say that our friend old Casyapa appears again in this section, and gives the party some very good advice as to their reliance on heaven : but the old gentleman himself, it seems, has been frightened out of his accustomed abode by Kehama’s approach ; and even Indra, the Swerga-King, and all the other celestials, *Diique Deaque omnes*, (excepting the great Trimourtee) are hastening

‘Beyond the circle of the conquer’d world.’

Ladurlad and Kailyal are landed again on earth ; and the curse returns in full force on the former.

The Retreat, section 13th, again affords Mr. S. an opportunity of displaying his peculiar powers of description ; and in rural scenery, and pictures of still life, those powers are certainly very uncommon :—but alas ! the comparatively tranquil *tête à tête* of the unhappy father and daughter soon meets with a fresh disturbance. A band of Yoguees (votaries of Jaga-Naut, a horrible God, whose temple is to the Hindoos what Mecca is to the Mohammedans,) seize Kailyal to be the bride of their divinity, and carry her away in triumph.

In the 14th section, *Jaga-Naut*, we wade through another description of a disgusting scene of slaughter, of “blood and bones :” the ponderous car of the idol crushes the frantic devotees, who lie in its way to court their death ; and this we shall again be told is a *natural*, if not a necessary, part of an Indian story ! Then, “for mercy’s sweet sake,” let us have no more Indian stories ; with their troops of Bartholomew-fair divinities, and their exhibitions of “raw heads and bloody bones !”

The Glendoveer flies to the assistance of Kailyal ; but he is hemmed in and overpowered by a host of demons, at the beck of Lorrinite, just as he had dashed Arvalan to the floor of the temple, ‘clothed in the flesh of man, the accursed soul of Arvalan.’ The Glendoveer is sent by the power of Lorrinite (for there seems to be a sort of play or balance between the
alternate

alternate superiority of Heaven and of Hell, throughout the poem,) to the antient sepulchres, below the billows of the ocean.

Kailyal now sets fire to the pagoda, in order to escape the foul embraces of the reviving Arvalan ; whom his magical friends had recovered from the 'ice-rift' in which we left him, by a supernatural writ of *habeas corpus* ; who appears to be invincible by thumps and blows of every description ; and who, indeed, is knocked about like a shuttlecock through the universe, by the timely battledoors of the friends of Kailyal. Just as she is about to perish in the flames, Ladurlad rushes in and saves her ; and here we again see the malice of the wicked frustrated, and 'the curse' returning like a young chicken home to roost ! Arvalan flies forth,

'Howling, and scorch'd by the devouring flame.'

In the 15th section, *the City of Baly*, (another God,) we still more instructively perceive this genuine moral of the poem. The city is under water ; and Ladurlad, in course, resolves to dive to it, and even to the antient sepulchres under it, where the Glendoveer is confined. On the way towards the city, we hear a strange story about an Avatar of Veeshnoo, in the shape of a dwarf, "*Ingentes animos angusto in corpore versans*," and about a bargain which he made with Baly ; who seems to have been a very fair dealer, and is rewarded for his fairness by permission to go to Hell, and live there, to judge the dead, and to take a walk on earth once in a year.—Kailyal is left on the sea-shore, when Ladurlad begins his dry ramble under the waves ; and there she waits for him seven days in vain. How she subsisted during that period, (unless on raw-fish, to which dainty support her father commends her,) it were indeed silly and superfluous to inquire. Even natural heroines have privileges of never eating : but a creature, who was *hand and glove* with the immortals, was doubtless well supplied with celestial trifles during this week of solitude. Seriously, however, some fine painting occurs in this section ; and the dim appearance of the ruined domes, and pinnacles, and spires of the antient city, seen mournfully above the waves, could only have been conceived by a poet. The description increases in wildness of imagination through the 16th section, *the Antient Sepulchres* : but we can only briefly mention the arrival there of Ladurlad,

'Through many a solitary street,
And silent market-place, and lonely square ;'

through what had once been the palace-garden,

'Fair garden, once which wore perpetual green.'

In these chambers of the Kings of Old, each is seated in death on his throne ; and, assuredly, a more terrible fairy-tale was never

never devoured by school-boy ; nor better description (with some degrading exceptions,) achieved by poet. Ereenia is discovered bound to a rock in these caves of horror, and a most enormous serpent or sea-monster lying sleepless before him. This 'Beast' far outdoes even the former outdoings of all the author's works. He and Ladurlad *fight for a whole week together, incessantly*. The combat is conducted after the most approved method of the antient Pancratiastæ,—rolling and grappling on the ground,—and really making our modern pugilists, with all their scientific modes of attack and defence, a harmless and inoffensive species of combatants. If we might venture to use a very fashionable phrase of the last-mentioned most fashionable race, we should say that Ladurlad turns out to be a greater *glutton* than the monster ; and, having *stomached* the longest bruising of the two, he leaves his antagonist lifeless at the mouth of the tombs. He then releases the Glendoveer, and they both set out to walk back again to Kailyal, through the ocean.

Section the 17th is called *Baly*. It happens to be the very night of this deity's annual perambulation on earth, and 'Baly ! great Baly !' is shouted in his ears from every corner : but the 'Mighty-One' (for the poem presents many Mighty-Ones, and not a few Almighty-Ones,) takes no delight in human mirth, since earth and air are now beneath the reign of Kehama ; and he turns to the sea-shore, in melancholy mood,

'Where, in yon full-orb'd Moon's refulgent light,
The Golden Towers of his old City shine
Above the silver sea.'—

There he discovers Kailyal, standing in her loveliness on the moonlight beach ; and presenting a picture which, without any disadvantage to itself, may be compared to that of "the Lady of the Lake" when first discovered. Baly, 'from his invisibility,' watches her in silent admiration. The dead body of the monstrous serpent is now rolled to the shore, and announces the victory of Ladurlad to his daughter ; though how she came 'rightly to read that victory' by seeing the dead monster is not explained, for not a word was said about it before Ladurlad left her. The Glendoveer and his deliverer now rise from the opening deep ; Kailyal flies to meet them, and meets—Arvalan!

— 'his loathsome face
Came forth, and from the air,
In fleshy form, he burst.

* * * * *
'The fiendish laugh of Lorrinite is heard ;
And, at her dreadful word,

'The

'The Asuras once again appear,
And seize Ladurlad and the Glendoveer.'

Baly cries aloud — 'Hold your accursed hands!' — and putting forth a hundred of his own on every side, (where we would remind Mr. S. that he breaks his promise in the preface, as quoted at the beginning of this article,) he seizes the Sorceress and Arvalan, cleaves the earth with a stamp, and sinks with his prey down to his own judgment-seat, '*like a plummet*;' and (*Deo Gratias*!) we hear no more of either Arvalan or Lorrinite.

In section 18th, the dreadful Kehama descends on earth 'like a thunderbolt,' from the Swerga. He hurls his fiery weapon after Baly down the abyss: but Baly hurls it back again, and tells him that he has not yet conquered Hell. Kehama shouts in desperate anger down to Yamen,

—————God of Padalon!
Prepare thy throne,
And let the Amreeta cup
Be ready for my lips—————

This is the cup of immortality; and Kehama conceives what seems to be a sudden thought, (like that by which the characters in the "Rovers" swear eternal friendship at first sight,) that he will share this cup with Kailyal, and become her bridegroom! *He puts the question*, rather prettily for so rude a personage; and indeed his courtship here forcibly reminds us of that species of amorous cruelty which forms the mixed character of *Bluebeard*. We could pursue the parallel, but will only observe that the maiden declines his polite offer very indignantly; feeling, we suppose, the reverse of the Corinthian lady's motive, when she replied to her suitor, "*Patri negavi jam tuo.*"

However this may be, Kehama, after having taken off Ladurlad's curse, by way of a bribe to his daughter, lays it on again in revenge for her refusal of his hand; and filling that hand with fresh execrations, he not only again flings 'the fire in his heart, and the fire in his brain' on the father, but converts the charming Kailyal into a disgusting leper. — We always have been accustomed to consider it as bad taste in Fielding to break the bridge of Amelia's nose: but what is this to a heroine covered with 'scurf and scale?' — the very words of our minutely-delineating poet. Nothing, surely; and we must now alter our opinion, on Mr. Southey's authority; for lo! he has a *salvo* at hand for his leprous favourite. She is in love with a Glendoveer; and he will see the beauties of her soul through the deformities of her body! We cannot, however

in the midst of this nonsense, (for it is, in truth, not better,) help admiring the good sentiment of Kailyal, that she cares not how she appears to other eyes; and, indeed, she rejoices in the safety which her ugliness will afford to her innocence. This sentiment, and her transient feeling of womanly sorrow for the loss of her beauty, which precedes it, in some measure redeem the revolting character of the whole incident.—Ereenia, meanwhile, has soared to heaven.

In *Mount Calasay*, section the 19th, the aspiring Glendoveer, bent on the pursuit of justice, seeks the throne of the ‘inaccessible one,’ of Seeva himself; who, as we premised, here takes precedence of Brama, and forms the head of the triad. After having ascended *above all height*, Ereenia at length discovers the abode of Seeva; and of what apparent materials does it consist? Of a silver bell, a broad table, a celestial rose, and a sacred triangle

‘Holding the Emblem which no tongue may tell.
Is *this* the Heaven of Heavens, where Seeva’s self doth dwell?’

We can hardly conceive a more ludicrous question; unless it occurred in a fairy-tale, and was addressed to a child of five years old. The description of this strange apparatus must recall to some of our readers the *exhibition* (as it was denominated) of the *Invisible Girl*; where some emblematical representations of an equally dignified nature were really to be seen.—The audacious Indian sylph strikes the bell; ‘soul-thrilling tones’ ring at the touch; and all the vision disappears. A blaze of light then bursts around; light in which the sun would have seemed a speck of darkness! And what follows this magnificent hyperbole?

‘Down fell the Glendoveer,
Down through all regions, to our mundane sphere
He fell.’—

We are strongly tempted to add a popular chorus to this passage, but we forbear.—The falling sylph hears a voice, bidding him go to Yamen’s throne, where all will be set right; and in the 20th section, *the Embarkation*, we are glad to find that he was not hurt by his perilous tumble, but lands on earth as well as if nothing had happened, and finds his Kailyal where he had left her. The poor damsel herself is rather loth to encounter his eye, notwithstanding her philosophy: but she nobly recovers herself, and he as nobly receives her with undiminished affection. The trio of pilgrims then set out again on their progress, and arrive at the shore of the dreary ocean which is to lead them to Padalon.—The short passage which follows exhibits in a very striking point of view the excellences
and

and the defects of Mr. Southey. The conception of the scene is as good as the expression of the verses is execrable. Why will he debase such matter by such a manner?

‘ There, in a creek, a vessel lay,
Just on the confines of the day,
It rode at anchor in its bay,
These venturous pilgrims to convey
Across that outer Sea.
Strange vessel sure it seem’d to be,
And all unfit for such wild sea !
For through its *yawning side the wave*
Was oozing in * ; the mast was frail,
And old and torn its only sail.
How shall that crazy vessel brave
The billows, that in wild commotion
For ever roar and rave ?
How hope to cross the dreadful ocean,
O’er which eternal shadows dwell,
Whose secrets none return to tell !’

The travellers shudder at the thought of entering this wretched vessel, and crossing the sea of darkness : but ‘ an awful voice, that left no choice,’ cries out ‘ Aboard, aboard !’ Invisible hands let slip the cable and hoist the sail, and the adventurers move rapidly forwards to “*the World’s End* ;” where, in the 21st section, we are landed ; still without reaching the end of the poem, although we were ready, with Diogenes (when reading some prototype of the present composition, and approaching to its conclusion,) to exclaim— “ Land ! Land !”

The party emerge from the waters of night, and see their way before them. Ladurlad’s curse leaves him ; we trust, for ever. On the strand, which is bounded by ‘ a level belt of ice,’ are discerned a variety of ghosts, waiting for judgment. Here Homer, and Virgil, and Dante, are laid under contribution with tolerable judgment, and improved (in some respects) with real genius. Beyond the belt of ice, is the gulph of mortality ; and beyond the gulph, are mountains whose heads support the *second earth*, and whose feet

‘ Are fix’d in everlasting night.’

Ereenia plunges into the gulph with Kailal ; leaving poor Ladurlad (as a punishment, we suppose, for his former selfishness) alone on the beach. They reach ‘ the gate of Padalon,’ in the 22d section : but ‘ eight gates hath Padalon ;’ and a warden (unlike our single warden of all the Cinque Ports) is stationed at each gate. The damned spirits within are at the

* ——— “ *multam accepit rimosa paludem.*” Virg. *Æn.* VI.

moment of Kailyal's arrival howling for Kehama to come and deliver them, having a presentiment of his approach. Neroodi, the lord of the gate at which the trembling Virgin is placed, takes care of her till Ereenia's return; who leaves her, with the following most engaging address, in order to bring her father;

‘ Then quoth he to the Maid*,
Be of good chear, my Kailyal! *dearest dear*,
In faith subdue thy dread,
Anon I shall be here.’—

As soon as the Glendoveer arrives with his second *fare* from the gulph, Neroodi orders his chariot out of his infernal coach-house:

‘ Pois’d on a single wheel it mov’d along
Instinct with motion;’—

not unlike Merlín’s mechanical “*sulky*,” but Neroodi’s new patent knife-grinder’s barrow carries three inside, (so far indeed resembling the “Derby diligence†”) besides a man to wheel or guide it, intitled Carmala. Their way lies through the adamantine rock that girds the world of woe, rises in massive walls on their sides, and is arch’d over their heads. Here, again, we thought of those subterraneous vehicles which rattle along a coal-pit; and strata enough of coals must have occurred in this dark passage, for at the end of it is a whole sea of fire! Over this sea is stretch’d (not a *cast-iron-bridge* of a single arch, but)

‘ A single rib of steel,
Keen as the edge of keenest scymitar.’—
————— ‘ The infernal Car
Roll’d to the Gulph, and on its single wheel
Self-balanc’d, rose upon that edge of steel!’

We really turned giddy at this picture, and were obliged to hurry on into Hell itself for relief; that is, to the *Padalon* of Mr. Southey, which forms this 23d Section,

‘ Aloft the brazen turrets shone
In the red light of Padalon,
And on the walls between,
Dark moving, the infernal Guards were seen,
Gigantic Demons pacing to and fro.’ ‡

* * * *

* “To Trulla then quoth Hudibras.”

† See the poetry of the Anti-jacobin.

‡ See “Marmion:” but Mr. Scott’s centinels at Norham castle, with their gigantic shadows cast on the walls by the evening sun, are puny and insignificant to these pacing devils,

' Oh what a gorgeous sight it was to see
The Diamond City blazing on its height
With more than mid-sun splendour, by the light
Of its own fiery river !

Its towers and domes and pinnacles and spires,
Turrets and battlements, that flash and quiver
Through the red restless atmosphere for ever.

And hovering over head,
The smoke and vapours of all Padalon,
Fit firmament for such a world, were spread,
With surge and swell, and everlasting motion,
Heaving and opening like tumultuous ocean.'

May we not adopt the words of a great critic, (which are far more just in their present than they were in their original application,) and say of this living passage, — " Had Southey written often thus, it would have been vain to blame, and to praise him useless *."

The travellers reach the throne of Yamen, who has two forms, ' inseparable in unity.' He sits on a marble sepulchre; and below him Baly has his judgment-seat. An empty golden throne stands before them, supported by three human forms, who ' are of the hue of coals of fire,' (a farther justification of our simile above,) ' yet are they flesh and blood !' — Mr. Southey's readers really ought to have the credulity which Lord Peter exacts from his brethren in the " Tale of a Tub," and be ready to acknowledge that *dry bread* is most *excellent mutton*, when he chuses to swear it, since many contradictions, as plain and positive, and as gravely affirmed, appear in the present poem : — but to proceed; Azyoruca, the executrix of Baly's judgments, sits in a black cloud behind the golden throne, and draws the damned into that impenetrable darkness, by stretching out her giant-arms towards them. Yamen bids the strangers await in silence the approaching consummation of their destiny, and the last scene of this eventful tragedy commences.

The Anreeta, section 24, opens with a dreadful stillness, in which we fear the coming tempest.

Kehama appears !

————— self-multiplied,
The dreadful One appears on every side,
In the same indivisible point of time,
At the eight Gates he stood at once, and beat
The Warden-Gods of Hell beneath his feet ;

* It may be observed that the subject spoils the verses, animated as they are : but such verses would give interest to any subject.

" Before such merit all objections fly ;
Pritchard's genteel, and Garrick's six-feet high."

Then

Then, in his brazen Cars of triumph, straight,
At the same moment, drove through every gate."

We shall not attempt to describe the chariot drawn by 'Aullays, hugest of created kind,' in ten yokes of 'ten abreast;' nor the eight bridges that rise before his way over the gulph; all, we conclude, incomparably more convenient than the razor-bridge which carried our poor friends over in their one-wheel'd vehicle. We shall pass by, in short, all the *unnecessary* wonders of this frantic scene: but we know not that in this, or in any other part of the poem, Mr. Southey's most devoted admirers can complain of our having omitted a single incident essential to the display of his characters, or the developement of his plot. To other readers we should apologize for our prolixity; were we not desirous, as we hinted before, of giving a death-blow to the gross extravagancies of the author's school of poetry, if we cannot hope to reform so great an offender as himself.

In repeated violation of Mr. S.'s promise (see before) 'to keep out of sight those clumsy personifications of Divine Power,' which the dull excentricity of the Hindu Religion at every turn introduces, he here again makes his Man-God wield innumerable arms around the Lord of Hell. Surely it was enough that Kehama had eight to one in his favour. The strife is soon over; and, when the cloud which decently veils the combat has passed away, Kehama 'reassumes his Unity, absorbing into one the consubstantial shapes,' and sits supreme on the marble sepulchre, with his antagonist at his feet. He now asks the fiery coal-men who they are? and why they are only three? The first was the earliest slave of Avarice; the second, of Ambition; the third, of Religious Imposture. They add that a fourth wretch, equally guilty with themselves, must fill the vacant place, and conclude by singing a dreadful *Glee*,

'Kehama, come! too long we wait for thee!'

Kehama only laughs at them, and turns to Kailyal; to whom he *puts the question* again, and by whom he is again refused. In a rage he bids the Marble Sepulchre give up its treasure. The tomb is opened; and 'a huge anatomy' (recalling the scenes of *Bluebeard* again to our thoughts,) reaches forth its bony arm, and offers the Amreeta-cup to Kehama. The Glendoveer now prepares to rush forwards, and dare all for his Kailyal:— "*Quid non cœlestia pectora cogis, Improbe Amor?*" — but 'the Anatomy' warns him off. The three 'fiery-ones' sing their *Glee* again,—and Kehama drinks.—'Madman!'—he knew not that the quality of the draught was altered by the constitution of the patient, but fancied that it was a quack-medicine, equally beneficial in all cases:

'Immortal

' Immortal he would be,
Immortal he remains ; but through his veins
Torture at once, and immortality,
A stream of poison doth the Amreeta-run.'—

The fiery threes now turn their *glee* to songs of jubilee ; (as we might mimic, if we chose, Mr. S.'s Lilliputian style *)—Kehama quietly takes his station at the vacant corner ; "*all-fours*" is the order of the day ; and the four figures pleasantly remind us of "High, Low, Jack," and "the Game."

We return to take a last look at the only interesting character in the poem. Kailyal drinks the fated draught with holy hope, feels, as she drinks, her mortality fade away, and becomes the worthy mate of Ereenia.

' Mine ! mine ! with rapturous joy Ereenia cried,
Immortal now, and yet not more divine ;
Mine, mine, — for ever mine !
The immortal Maid replied,
For ever, ever, thine !' †

With this Raymond and Agnes sort of conclusion, the poet winds up his story. He is kind enough, indeed, to convey us out of Padalon, having left every thing there in good order. Ladurlad is lulled by Yamen into a pleasing slumber,—a slumber which how many of Mr. S.'s readers must have anticipated !

' Blessed that sleep ! more blessed was the waking !
For on that night a heavenly morning broke,
The light of heaven was round him when he woke,
And in the Swerga, in Yedillian's Bower,
All whom he lov'd he met, to part no more.'

Such is the complete story of *the Curse of Kehama* ; and we now appeal to our readers whether we have ridiculed it unjustly ? As to the execution of the plan, in our praise or censure of particular passages, we shall probably be said to have erred on the side of panegyric. We maintain, however, our opinion, (collected from all the works of Mr. Southey,) that were he wholly emancipated from the trammels of his unfortunate taste, *he has that within him* which would make him equal to the best of poets. This promise, alas ! he only occasionally gives us ; while, in general, all that nature and all that art has lavished on him is rendered useless by his obstinate adherence to his own system of fancied originality ; in which "every

* The celebrated ode in Gulliver's Travels, which begins "In amaze, lost I gaze !" seems to be Mr. S.'s model on many occasions.

† "Agnes, Agnes, thou art mine !"

"Raymond, Raymond, I am thine !

Thou art mine, I am thine,
Body and soul for ever !"

LEWIS'S MONK.
thing

thing that is good is old; and every thing that is new is good for nothing."

We must now offer a few closer strictures on his language and versification, or rather that wantonness of rhyme which often answers to the beginning or the middle of a line as well as to the end.—If we must grant the shortened penultima of the word 'balcony' to a modern poet, we see no reason for allowing the comparative 'worse;'—six successive lines, all ending with the pronoun 'me,' cannot be tolerated;—the epithet 'death-dew-dropping' is too much *de*-compounded to please us;—'transpicuous' is a vile word, though sanctioned by analogy;—'consummating blood' is consummate nonsense;—'sweat' standing on the forehead of Seeva, the supreme Deity, is abominable;—'unapproachable' is an unpoetical word, whoever may have used it, as a rhyme to 'dwell;'—'double, double peals' of a drum are phrases for children;—'dolorous expectation,' as a rhyme to consternation, and 'lamentation,' is very idle indeed;—'bless the blessed company' is infantine again;—'plumery' for plumage would sanction any thing;—'influxes of Heaven' are absurd;—'defeat for defeat' is inadmissible;—'mighty mother! mother wise!' reminds us of DULLNESS herself, the 'mighty mother' in the *Dunciad*;—'liquid sight,' drawn from 'the sockets of a thousand eyes,' and 'kneaded into a globe of chrystal,' is too offensively foolish for us to proceed any farther;—and we have only to observe that all these beauties occur in less than one-half of the volume, and that our remaining list is much longer than the portion which we have already transcribed. A poet, who has no restraint in his versification, is inexcusable for laxity in language;—and this remark brings us to the former subject again. We shall say, however, but little more on that subject; for if the reader has not learned ere now duly to appreciate the versification of Mr. S., nothing that we can urge will enable him to do this. Since variety seems to have universal charms for this author, if he be not too sublime to despise such paltry honours altogether, he will probably rest his merit as a versifier on that foundation: but variety is one thing, and irregularity is another. The musician—"chordâ qui semper oberrat eadem"—may not be more offensive by his monotony, than the poet who describes scenes of dignity in measures as familiar as those of *Crazy Tales* or *Broad Grins*. The justly modulated versè, or rather system of harmony, (such for instance as Dryden, and, in perfection, perhaps only Dryden, sometimes displays,) should contain no pause which is in itself unpleasing; roughness should not be studied as a contrast to smoothness: but the result of the whole should be that of a number of elegant forms

combined in one graceful whole. So far like the models of beauty, (we trust, not the models of mutability,) the music of poetry should be varied in expression, but not perpetually changing:

— " *Sit varium—sed non mutabile semper
Carmen.*" *

Mr. S. perhaps, when he compares his *Curse of Kehama* with *Thalaba*, will think that he is wonderfully improved in the artificial qualifications of a poet: but such a comparison would remind us of his apology for the extravagant fictions of the present poem: 'compared with the genuine tales of Hindoo mythology, they might almost be called credible.' (Preface. p. 8.)

Convinced as we are that many of this author's faults proceed from mere idleness, deserving even less indulgence than the erroneous principles of his poetical system, we shall conclude by a general exhortation to all critics to condemn, and to all writers to avoid, the example of combined carelessness and perversity which is here afforded by Mr. Southey; and we shall mark this last and worst excentricity of his muse with the following character. Here is the composition of a poet not more distinguished by his genius and knowledge, than by his contempt for public opinion and the utter depravity of his taste; a depravity which is incorrigible, and, we are sorry to add, most unblushingly rejoicing in its own hopelessness of amendment. That Mr. S. does so rejoice, we shall prove by transcribing his quotation from "George Wither;" which he prefixes to his poem as a sort of manifesto, or declaration of war against all criticism. He introduces it by praying 'for a glimpse of Proteus with his various shapes, because he fabricates a various song.'

Στήσατε μοι Πρωτην πολυτροπον, ὅφρα φανεῖν
Ποικίλον ἶδος ἔχων, ὅτι ποικίλον ἦμνον ἀράσσω.

Thus do the Dionysiacs of Nonnus (according to Mr. S.) introduce "George Wither."

" For I will for no man's pleasure
Change a syllable or measure;
Pedants shall not tie my strains
To our antique poets' veins;
Being born as free as these,
I will sing as I shall please."

* See our remarks on Morrice's Homer; (Rev. Vol. lxi. N.S. p. 337.) where Cowper's excessive fondness for varied pauses is censured: a censure which is applicable with infinitely more force to Mr. Southey's buffoonery of variation in the length and cadence of his lines.

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We have finally to remind Mr. Southey that "when a man is against reason, reason will be against him," although "George Wither" be on his side.

In the course of this article, we have alluded to a few instances in which Mr. Southey may be closely tracked in the footsteps of preceding poets, and many more might be specified, particularly with regard to Milton : but we shall content ourselves with this general intimation.

ART. II. *Memoirs of the Life of Thomas Beddoes, M.D., with an analytical Account of his Writings.* By John Edmonds Stock, M.D., Physician in Bristol, &c. &c. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1811.

NO member of the medical profession, in our time, rose to a greater degree of celebrity than Dr. Beddoes. We well remember the period at which his ardent admirers regarded him with a species of enthusiasm, as destined to effect a grand revolution in the healing art, to put a stop to the ravages of some of the most intractable diseases, and to throw light on some of the most obscure operations of the animal œconomy. Yet when we add that their expectations have been disappointed, and that their hopes have been blasted, we believe that such has been almost universally the case with the more respectable and intelligent part of our contemporaries. Those who had no personal acquaintance with Dr. Beddoes, and knew nothing of his private character except through the uncertain medium of common report, could form an opinion of him only from his publications; and from the result of his practice, and these data, many were led to the conclusion that he was to be considered either as an empiric, making professions which he knew could not be realized, or as a well-meaning visionary speculatist, deceiving the world, not from design, but from being himself deluded. The present volume, however, will, in a great measure, enable them to determine the question; and although different opinions will necessarily be formed of the extent and degree of the qualities which composed Dr. Beddoes's character, yet respecting their nature and tendency we apprehend that no dispute can any longer subsist. Dr. Stock has indeed given a very ample account of his friend; it contains every particular relative to the occurrences of his life which can in any degree interest the world; it furnishes an extended analysis of his published works, with copious quotations from them; and it presents a view of his private studies, and the occupations of his leisure hours, with numerous ex-

tracts from his correspondence and other unpublished papers. All these materials compose a volume of considerable size : yet to us it was interesting ; and we think that it will generally obtain this epithet even from those who are not members of the medical profession.

Dr. Beddoes seems early in life to have exhibited symptoms of genius, and to have possessed from his childhood a strongly marked character, consisting of precisely the same traits which were afterward more fully developed. He was little disposed to enter into the common routine of youthful sports ; not from inactivity or superciliousness, but from a disposition to inquire minutely into all subjects, and from a curiosity which never permitted him to remain satisfied with a superficial view of things. His progress in school-learning was considerable, and he was always a favourite with his masters. He was reserved with strangers, but he entertained the warmest feelings of affection for his relations, and formed many intimate and durable friendships. He enjoyed great advantages of education, and he did not fail to improve them. At the age of sixteen he entered at Oxford, where he remained for the greatest part of eight years : he then spent three years at Edinburgh ; and in his 27th year he completed his medical studies. This long period of preparation seems to have been employed in the diligent pursuit of scientific and professional knowledge ; his moral conduct was correct ; and he always possessed the good opinion of his fellow-students and tutors. Dr. Stock does not supply a very accurate account of the mode in which Dr. B. employed his time during these years : but with respect to the sum of his attainments, when his medical education was finished, we may collect the following particulars. He was a good classic, and was master of several modern languages ; his poetical talents were respectable, and his memory was extraordinarily tenacious and extensive ; he had acquired a competent knowledge of mathematics, and had even considered some part of the subject in a novel and ingenious point of view ; his acquaintance with chemistry, natural history, and all the accompanying branches of science, was probably both correct and ample ; and the departments of medicine and anatomy appear to have obtained from him that distinguished share of attention, which it becomes a man to bestow on the object to which he proposes more immediately to consecrate the remainder of his life. When, in addition to these acquirements, it is recollected that Dr. Beddoes possessed a mind of activity and penetration, not warped by prejudice nor drawn aside by the allurements of pleasure, but almost entirely devoted to the acquisition of science, it will be admitted that he entered on his professional

career with distinguished advantages, and that the most sanguine expectations of his future success might rationally be formed.

The remaining particulars of Dr. Beddoes's life may be comprized in a few words. He was elected chemical lecturer to the University of Oxford, an office which he filled with credit, but resigned in about four years; partly, at least, in consequence of his becoming obnoxious from the warmth with which he entered into the politics of the day. In the year 1792 he published his first speculations on the subject of consumption, and shortly afterward removed to Clifton, in order to establish and superintend an institution, the object of which was to employ the different gases in the cure of diseases. In this situation he remained for the rest of his days; the principal events of which consist in the publication of a number of works chiefly on medical subjects, and in the formation of different schemes for the cure of consumption, which were successively brought forwards with great confidence, but which were all found ineffectual, and were finally abandoned. He died at Clifton in his 49th year, 24th December 1808, of an affection of the lungs, the nature of which he appears to have mistaken; although for the greatest part of his professional life he had been engaged in the study of this class of diseases.

In two points of view, Dr. Beddoes's character may be contemplated,—as a member of society, filling the relations of husband, father, and friend,—and as a physician and a man of science. Regarding him in the first station, we see much to admire and to commend. He was not only correct in his conduct, and exemplary in the discharge of all the domestic and social duties, but he exhibited many proofs of an unusual share of active benevolence, and of that generous warmth of heart which made him more attentive to the welfare of his neighbours than to his own private interest. We are the more ready to give him every degree of credit for these good qualities, because we feel ourselves constrained to dissent from the encomiastic style in which his biographer treats of his professional merits. The fact is notorious that Dr. Beddoes, in several instances, suggested different remedies for the cure of diseases; that he spoke of the probability of their success with an unwarrantable degree of sanguineness; that he, from time to time, published very flattering accounts of the advantages which he had derived from them; that he experienced from different individuals very powerful assistance in the prosecution of his experiments; and yet that he silently discarded them, without making any explicit declaration of their inefficiency, or assigning any cause for the alteration of his opinions. Here we

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see not only a manifest deficiency of judgment, or rather a total absence of that prudent caution which is an essential requisite in the character of the medical philosopher, but we perceive a want of that candor and liberality of sentiment which should have led to a confession of the failure of schemes, that were announced as comprizing a series of experiments in which the welfare of the public was most intimately concerned. Considered in one department of his profession, however, Dr. Beddoes is intitled to commendation which will accompany his name to posterity; viz. his manner of describing diseases; though even here, his writings being generally intended for popular use, they are more to be admired for the lively pictures which they present than for the nicety of their discrimination. After all that he has published on consumption, we do not recollect that he has ascertained one fact which was before doubtful, or that he has discovered any circumstance respecting that malady which was before unknown: but it would be unjust to deny him the merit of a powerful style of declamatory eloquence; which, though little fitted for works of science, is admirably adapted for impressing the minds of the uninformed, or for fixing the attention of the indolent.

We have hitherto confined ourselves to the subject of these memoirs, without adverting to the writer of them: but we must not conclude before we have expressed our sense of Dr. Stock's merits, which we regard as very considerable. His style is in general good, his arrangement is perspicuous, and we think that he has effected his purpose, of enabling the reader to form a correct judgment of the subject of his work. We naturally expect that a biographer, writing the life of his friend, should dwell on his excellences, and pass lightly over his defects; and we do not accuse him of undue partiality, nor of misrepresentation, if the documents which he collects be numerous and authentic. To prove that our praise of Dr. Stock is sincere, we shall mention a circumstance in which we deem him censurable, and in no slight degree. We refer to the terms of reproach, we may almost say of insult, in which he speaks of those who rejected Dr. Beddoes's speculative doctrines; a reproach which was never more unfortunately applied than in the present case, where the author renounced all his own hypotheses. This method of proceeding is a deviation from the good sense which, in other respects, characterizes this volume; and, for the sake of the writer, we cannot but hope that he may be induced to expunge the obnoxious passages in his next edition.

We shall offer to the reader some quotations, by which he will be enabled to appreciate the commendation which we have bestowed on the style of the volume:

'On the evening of the 22d December 1808, Dr. Beddoes superintended the erection of a stove in his hall. The pipe was conducted up the centre of the stair-case, and he ascended to the top of the house in order to see it properly conveyed through the roof. The evening was remarkably cold, and he remained for some time exposed to the chilling blasts that rushed down the aperture through which the pipe was to pass. His servants remarked that while thus engaged, his debility appeared extreme. The next day he was not so well, and the succeeding night was restless and uneasy: his respiration was alarmingly affected, and the symptoms became so urgent as to induce him, at an early hour of the morning of the 24th, to request Dr. Craufuird's assistance. The difficulty of respiration rapidly increased. Squills and digitalis were administered in repeated doses, and some relief was obtained. At eight o'clock his medical friends left him; but in about two hours they were again summoned. Every unfavourable symptom was now aggravated. The hot-water blister was proposed, and assented to without hesitation; but its application was succeeded by temporary benefit only. In the attentions which the urgency of the case demanded, a considerable time was consumed. The morning was far advanced before Dr. Craufuird quitted his patient. At parting he told him that he would see him again upon his return to his dinner. Dr. Beddoes expressed his regret at this interruption to his necessary avocations, and attempted also to express his gratitude for his kindness; but his frame was too feeble to allow him to give vent to his feelings in words, and the tears trickled down his cheek, as he made the effort. About half past three, Dr. Craufuird returned. Upon entering the room he found his patient sitting up, but a great and alarming change had taken place in his countenance. He advanced to feel his pulse, but the hand of death was already on him, and the stroke of the artery at the wrist was scarcely perceptible. Dr. Beddoes then turning to his wife and sister-in-law, who were sitting near him, motioned them to retire. As soon as they had quitted the room, he looked up, and in a calm but expressive voice, said, "I suppose, Doctor, that you are fully aware that this cannot hold long—tell me, do not you think so?" Dr. Craufuird, though waving a direct reply, could not contradict him; he told him however that he appeared exhausted by sitting up, and advised him to lie down on the bed, with which he complied. Dr. Beddoes then directed the conversation to a medical topic which had been the subject of discussion between them some time before, and upon which he spoke with as much calmness and precision as usual.'—'He expired between five and six o'clock in the evening.'

'Those who had but a transient personal acquaintance with Dr. Beddoes, will be more surprized than those who have formed their estimate of his character from his writings only, to be informed that a considerable degree of enthusiasm was a distinguishing characteristic of his mind. In his writings, this feature frequently develops itself: but it much more rarely penetrated through the reserve which he manifested in his intercourse with general society. Under an apparent coldness of manner, however, which, towards those for whom he neither felt sympathy nor respect, was almost repulsive, he concealed warm feeling and often vivid interest. His early habits of life tended

so generate a shyness in his intercourse with strangers, which has already been alluded to in a former part of this memoir; and the superiority of his mental attainments had, almost from his earliest years, insulated him from his family; who, though they could admire, could not comprehend his acquisitions. He was therefore reduced to the necessity of placing his resources within himself and holding communion with his own mind. It must not, however, be concluded from this, that he ever acted as if he had imagined that the superiority to which his talents had elevated him, exempted him from the discharge of the duties of a son or a brother. On the contrary, he was exemplary in both relations, to the close of his life. I have before me a letter, in which it is remarked that he never appeared to greater advantage than when in company with his mother; towards whom he uniformly conducted himself with mingled respect and affection. In his own domestic circle the softer features of his mind were still more conspicuous. His conduct towards children, even before he was himself a father, manifested that kindness of heart and that affectionate solicitude for the welfare of these interesting little beings, which frequently break forth in his writings. These feelings became concentrated and exalted, when awakened for children of his own.

Dr. Beddoes was born at Shiftnall, April 13, 1760, of a family which was originally Welsh, but had long been settled at Cheney Longville, Salop. His grandfather was a tanner, and acquired a considerable fortune.—A portrait of the Doctor is prefixed to the volume.

ART. III. *The Artist*; a Collection of Essays, relative to Painting, Poetry, Sculpture, Architecture, the Drama, Discoveries of Science, and various other Subjects. Edited by Prince Hoare. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Murray. 1810.

THE progress of art has oftener been a cause than a consequence of the literature of art. Criticism can prevent deficiency, and deter from rashness: but an obedience to its rules has never sufficed to produce or to bestow excellence. Homer had already written, when Aristotle compiled the rules of the epopea; and Phidias created his Jupiter before Polycletus had ascertained the canonical proportions of a beautiful human frame. Practice precedes theory, which at most serves to methodize it. The imitation of select nature is the basis of all fine art; not the rhapsodical instructions of a fastidious philosophy. A publication of this kind, therefore, even if superlatively executed, would be more likely to contribute to the popularity than to the proficiency of the artist.

Still it is well to collect and to record the observations of tutored judges, on the state of British art, the relative merit of

its professors, and the national efforts for its encouragement. The conversation of academicians in their model-room deserves to be conveyed to the desk in the study, where it will be heard with deference, but appreciated without prejudice. Much yet remains to be amended in the phraseology of artistical criticism; in which terms are employed that want precision, and that excite in different minds different ideas. Whoever condescends to use a phrase, which he can neither explain nor define, may rival the idolatrous enthusiasm of a Winckelmann, or a Goethe, and for a time may obtain the plaudits of those who find it convenient to veil their ignorance beneath the jargon of mysticism: but such declaimers, however popular, are always evanescent.

We shall run over, in their order, the component papers of these volumes; which, for desultory contents and familiarity of form, imitate, or resemble, the *Spectator* of Addison. The first number is written by the editor, and treats dabbingly of 'dabblers.' An attempt to define the technical terms, in use among painters of the English school, would have been the fittest introductory topic.—The second number, by Mr. Northcote, contains sound ideas; and the following remark concerning imitators is not less true in literature than in painting:

'The imitator of another, if fame be his object, must remember that he wages war against the elected sovereign of the province which he attempts to win, and that, in his endeavours after a station of immortality, he makes pretensions to a throne already filled, and which can hold but one. If indeed he prove finally successful, and raise his point of art to higher excellence than can be found in the productions which he imitates, his predecessor will then appear to have merely furnished him with hints of which he alone has been able to make the full use, and the prize of fame will be solely his own. The world will cease to find a value in that which they once admired, when they see it presented to them in so much more perfect a state, and of consequence all former examples will be rendered useless, become neglected, lost, and soon forgotten in the attractive splendour of his superior excellence.

'But if, on the contrary, the imitator fail to surpass the object of his rivalry, the fate of being neglected will be his; for the world is not solicitous to see that done in an inferior degree, which it has already seen executed with success; nor must he, in that case, presume to flatter himself that he has added a single atom to the fund of human knowledge or improvement. It is from this cause that the least portion of originality, although, as has been said, displaying itself in the lowest department of art, is more estimable in the eye of genius than the most successful imitation of the highest excellence.'

When Mr. Northcote passes on to advise the painter to select subjects of terror because the tragedian succeeds in them, he forgets how necessary are voice and motion to communicate
violent

violent passions. There is a contradiction in terms between stability of feature and flurried emotion. The painter, or the statuary, must necessarily chuse a given moment, and perpetuate it: he cannot, like the tragedian, successively proceed to the next expression: the limits of his art forbid any progressive description. He should be careful, therefore, to select for delineation the most permanent impression of his scene, which is never the most violent. The antient sculptors have not distorted into agony the features of Laocoon, and of his sons: hope in the gods, and an awe of their will, seem in them still to controul all indecorous fear or pain: not the moment of acutest suffering, but the enduring woe is pourtrayed. The softer passions succeed best in painting, because they are lasting states of mind.

No. III. contains some remarks on modern and forgotten satires, by Mr. Hoppner.—The fourth, by Mr. Hoare, treats of taste, which is a vague and variable instinct. Those objects and works of art which, by association, excite pleasing ideas in our minds, are called beautiful: but the *same* objects, or works of art, may, in different ages and countries, excite ideas unequally pleasurable, and thus may acquire or may lose beauty. The statues of Ganymede and Antinous, for instance, must appear less fascinating now (except to female spectators) than they appeared in the age of Hadrian; and the distant view of Jerusalem was to Godfrey a more beautiful spectacle than to Volney. The Torso, which Michel Angelo so much admired, and so frequently copied, is said to have formed a part of a statue of Hercules. If some anatomist had observed to Michel Angelo, that the muscle called *latissimus dorsi* is in that fragment more visibly expressed than it usually is in nature, the painter would no longer have deemed his Hercules perfectly beautiful: but if some antiquary had afterward ascertained that this block was part of a Palæmon holding an oar, and that in all rowers the muscle called *latissimus dorsi* is always extraordinarily apparent, the supposed imperfection would have again become in the artist's mind a characteristic of beauty, and would have been copied in its proper place, when a Charon was to be represented, or any one who excelled in using the oar. So variable in the same mind is the beauty of the same object.—A letter, by Mr. Northcote, on the dangers of indiscreet patronage, is commenced in this number, and concluded in the XIXth.

Number V. is a well-written paper on dramatic style, by the late Mr. Cumberland; and No. VI., by the late Mr. Cavallo, deserts the appropriate topic of the work, by blazoning the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton.—The seventh number, the joint production of Mess. Hoare, West, Northcote, Shee,

Boaden, and Mrs. Inchbald, forms an interesting memorial of the late Mr. Opie, whose paintings are justly praised for truth of nature, and whose luminous lectures deserved a more emphatic notice.

In number VIII. Mr. Thomas Hope strenuously recommends a more popular cultivation of the arts of design. — No. IX. is an able discussion by Mr. Northcote, on the respective limits of poetry and painting, and on the inexpediency of directing attention to the same phenomena in different forms of delineation :

‘ It is surely,’ says Mr. Northcote, ‘ not the province of one art to imitate another ; nature alone is the great object from which all art draws its nourishment, and it will be found by experiment, that art thus copying art in succession, the evaporation of nature’s essence will be so great at each remove, that very soon scarce any of the original flavour will be perceptible; and besides this, it will have gained an additional taste from each vessel, through which it has passed.

‘ To paint, therefore, the passions from the exhibitions of them on the stage, or from any intended descriptions of nature by the poets, is to remove yourself one degree farther from truth, and places the painter in the same forlorn state to which a poet would reduce himself, who made pictures and the stage his only means of seeing nature.

‘ The greatest works of art, both in painting and in sculpture, evidently derive all their highest excellence from being transcripts of ideas formed from a study of general nature, and regulated by a judicious choice ; and, if this be the case, it must then be acknowledged they would have been precisely the same, had poetry never existed but in the mind alone.’

The comparison of Raffael and Poussin is drawn with precision and eloquence ; and the observation of Winckelmann is confirmed, that the English poets too often fall into allegory and abstraction, and are not fortunate in describing visual beauty : but the cultivation of art among us is rapidly improving our poetry, which begins to be picturesque.

No. X., by Mr. Cumberland, is a humorous paper on criticism, virtue, and the rewards of poets and painters.

The eleventh essay, by Mr. Hoppner, throws light on the origin of our ideas of the beautiful ; on which subject a good dissertation has been published by Dr. Sayers.

No. XII. is a valuable historic sketch of the progress of sculpture in England. We shall borrow from it some important reflections :

‘ Previous to the Reformation, although *Italian Artists* were employed in ornamenting our Churches and Tombs, yet in the old Histories, Records, and Contracts of public buildings, there are abundant names of *English* painters and sculptors, who appear to have been considered the masters in their time, perhaps not inferior to their Italian fellow-workmen,

workmen. But after Henry the Eighth's separation from the Church of Rome, Elizabeth, proceeding in the Reformation, destroyed the pictures and images in the Churches; strictly forbidding any thing of the kind to be admitted in future, under the severest penalties, as being catholic and idolatrous. This entirely prevented the exercise of historical painting, or sculpture in this country; at the very time that Raffaele and Michel Angelo had brought those arts into the highest estimation on the Continent.—The rebellion, in 1648, completed what the reformation had begun; the fanatics defaced whatever they could, that the former inquisition had spared; they broke painted windows and tombs, carried away the monumental brass and church-plate, crying, "Cursed be he, that doth the work of the Lord deceitfully."—Thus the Artist, terrified by the threats of the Sovereign, the denunciation of death or perpetual imprisonment from the laws, and scared by fanatical anathemas, found that his only hope of safety resided upon quitting for ever a profession, which enclosed him on all sides with the prospect of misery and destruction. From this time, and from these causes, we scarcely hear of any attempt at historical art by an Englishman, until it was again called forth by the benign influence of the present reign.

When the liberal spirit of Charles the First desired to adorn the architecture of Whitehall with the graces of painting, he was obliged to seek the Artist in a foreign land; he had no subject equal to the task: Rubens and Vandyck were employed, and when the King's bust was to be done, Vandyck painted three views of his face, a front, a side, and a three-quarter, which were sent to Bernini in Rome, by whom it was executed in marble. If our Kings and Nobility had continued to inhabit castles, as in the feudal times, Painting and Sculpture would have been but little wanted; for, if the walls of the building were sufficiently strong to resist battery, or shot, and contained retreats to secure the inhabitants from the enemy, the end of that kind of dwelling was answered; but in the times succeeding Charles the First, the improved state of society and knowledge had induced the great to build commodious villas and palaces, in which the architectural distribution made the sister-arts absolutely necessary to uniformity and completion. Still ingenious foreigners were employed for this purpose, whilst the native was treated with contempt, both at home and abroad, for his inability in those arts which law and religion had forbidden him to practise.

As this suppression of ability was extremely impolitic and dishonourable to the country, let us inquire for a moment on what scriptural authority the prohibition which occasioned it, was supported. Painting and Sculpture were banished from the churches, that they might not be idolatrously worshipped; and this is just; the divine law orders they shall not be worshipped, but utters no prohibition against the arts themselves: on the contrary, divine precept directed images of cherubim to be made, whose wings should extend over the ark of the covenant, and cherubim to be embroidered on the curtains which surrounded it. This decision in favour of the arts being employed for proper purposes in sacred buildings, is so clear and strong, that it could only be overlooked, or opposed, by infatuated bigotry.

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' A succession of foreign artists, as has been observed, were employed in almost every work of importance, from the time of Charles the First, until within forty years of the present day. The painters, Vandyck, Lely, Verrio, Kneller, and Casali, succeeded to each other; as did also the sculptors, Cibber, Gibbons, Scheemakers, Rysbrack, Bertocini, and Roubiliac. This variety of artists (sculptors are more particularly meant) from different countries, French, Flemings, and Italians, sometimes brought the taste of John Goujon or Puget, sometimes a debased imitation of John of Bologna and the Florentine School, and sometimes the taste of Bernini; but never a pure style and sound principles. After the Reformation, the chief employment of Sculpture was in sepulchral monuments, which, during the reigns of James the First and his son Charles, were chiefly executed by Frenchmen or Flemings, scholars of John Goujon, still regulated by the principles their master had acquired from Primaticcio, the pupil of Raffaello. Some of these works have great merit, particularly the tombs of Sir John Norris, and Sir Francis Vere, in the same chapel with Roubiliac's Monument of Lady E. Nightingale in Westminster Abbey.

' The re-building of London, in the reign of Charles the Second, gave some employment to Sculpture. Cibber's works are the most conspicuous of that period: his mad figures on the Bethlehem gates have a natural sentiment, but are ill drawn: his bas-relief on the pedestal of London monument is not ill-conceived, but stiff and clumsy in the execution: his clothed figures in the Royal Exchange strut like dancing-masters, and have the importance of coxcombs. But with all his faults, what he left is far preferable to the succeeding works. The figures in St. Paul's Church, and the conversion of the Saint in the pediment, partake strongly of Bernini's affectation; and from that time to the establishment of the Royal Academy, we must expect to see every piece of sculpture more or less tinctured with the same bad taste, especially the sepulchral monuments, to which, after the Statues and Basso-relievos last noticed, we must chiefly look for the progress of Sculpture amongst us.'

This paper is written by Mr. Flaxman, whose sublime and simple plan for a colossal *Britannia triumphans*, to be erected on Greenwich-hill, still awaits the public patronage.

No. XIII., by Messrs. Hoare, Hoppner, and Cumberland, chiefly discusses Mr. Stothard's picture of Chaucer's pilgrims.—The following paper, by Mr. Soane, treats of Architecture. It leads us to observe that two faults are especially prevalent among our architects. 1. They neglect colossal dimension. If a building of the height of Somerset-house be separated into two or three stories, each adorned with a separate order of architecture, it is evident that the columns, and architraves, and interstices, must all be on a small scale, and thus the building must make on the eye an impression of littleness:—but if a building of the same height has its several floors thrown into one story, as at the India-house, it is obvious that the columns, architraves, and interstices

must all be on a large scale, and thus the building strikes the eye with an impression of grandeur. In the drawing, this effect may escape notice, and hence arises the choice of so many petty plans. 2. They neglect costume. To the Gothic rooms of Guildhall, a Hindoo front is applied. One wall of the Bank seems to have been bought at Corinth, and another in Egypt. A confusion of the antique and of the Italian style, of the Gothic and of the French, may often be remarked.

Some remarks on novel-writing, by Mrs. Inchbald, are appended to the above paper;—and Nos. XV. and XVI., by Mr. Cavallo, relate, not to water as an element of landscape, nor as a menstruum of colouring, but to the methods of preserving and purifying water; which, by an abuse of punning, might perhaps be called a *fine art*.

No. XVII. is an excellent paper, by Mr. Carlisle, on the connection between anatomy and the arts of design. It awards to Leonardo da Vinci and Michel Angelo a superiority, as anatomists, over Raffael and Titian.

The XVIIIth number, by Mr. Pye, (with some subjoined theatrical remarks by Mr. Holcroft,) examines the influence of the arts on morals. Unfortunately, it must be admitted that a libertine-morality is more conducive than austerity to the excellence of art. Its highest attainment is to represent well, on canvas, or on marble, naked beauty; and in order to the accomplishment of this object, a whole generation both of artists and critics should pass a great portion of time in the presence of the uncovered human figure. Those frequent observations on the play of the muscles, and the shadowy sinuosities of the skin, which can alone enable the eye to judge and the hand to execute, may best be realized in a climate which invites to frequent bathing, in a military system which adopts gymnastic exercises, and in the purlieus of debauchery. The arts may too often be called not nurslings of the virtues, but of the pleasures; and if they worship glory for recompense, they worship sensuality for improvement.

In No. XIX., Dr. Jenner attempts a classification of human intellect. The class comprehended under the denomination *Excentricity* is the most aptly and precisely characterized.

No. XX. contains some curious hints from Mr. Northcote on the danger of imitating stage-effect in painting. The French school has suffered especially from this cause. Theatrical exhibition is necessarily a caricature; and, but for the *fugaciousness* of each tone, gesture, and situation, it would offend as overstepping the modesty of nature. The painter should always be seeking those degrees and forms of expression which are permanent.

No. XXI. agreeably terminates the first volume by revealing the names of the several contributors. The collective dissertations of Mr. Northcote appear to us the most important and instructive.

The Second Volume does not surpass the first in choice of materials; and of the best writings on Art, a narrow knowledge is displayed.—A more convenient form of printing, however, has been adopted, by numbering the pages continuously.

The first paper treats of the value of Painting, by the editor; —the second, of the origin of the Fine Arts, by Mr. Cumberland; the third, of Monumental Records, by Mr. Elmes; and the fourth, of Analysis, Analogy, and Arrangement. This last paper, like the nineteenth number of the former volume, is too metaphysical for its situation.

No.V., by the editor, including a letter from Mr. West, asserts the importance of patronage: but we must remark that the best schools of art have grown out of *demand*, not out of patronage. The antient Greeks paid little attention to educating and training their artists, but they employed great sums of money in the purchase of statues. In peace they assessed rates, and in war they allotted booty, to be expended for the decoration of their temples. The priests levied on conviviality, on superstition, and on commerce, a tribute applicable to works of sculpture; and thus the Archipelago was surrounded with fanes idolized by Taste. In modern Italy, the opportunities were indeed great, for studying the models of antiquity: but the Italian artists again were not reared in the hot-houses of patronage, and were suffered to grow by chance out of a national demand for their productions. The churches had vast revenues, and expended them on altar-pieces; the princes had large saloons, and adorned them with meretricious paintings; while the merchants of Venice, Genoa, and Florence, imitated the luxuries of pontiffs and nobles, and painted *al fresco* the cielings of their villas. That which criticism discovered to have been ill done was soon displaced, and superseded by a more reputable painting. Little inequality of value prevailed between the new and the dismissed picture; the labour was paid rather than the excellence remunerated; and thus every one could buy and change, and every artist could live and work. If, instead of attaching a ridiculous value to names, and prizing high the bad pictures of good masters, we were to consider the work, and not the artist, a great approximation would be made to that state of demand which is most advantageous for art. Ought the same paintings to hang for ever in the same house? The eye soon sickens of identical furniture, and unvarying imagery. The regal luxury of Macbeth would displease if the ghost of Banquo were al-
ways

ways to start over the board. Let us change and rechange. This fashion of the opulent would soon be imitated in middle life, and soon place within reach of every buyer some known pictures. A great demand will create great artists; and the return of peace and commerce will distribute to the world's limits the productions of the British pencil.

No. VI., by Mr. Cavallo, treats on uniformity of character in Nature.—In No. VII. Mr. Northcote furnishes a lively allegory, somewhat in Addison's manner, which is continued in Nos. XIII. and XVII. — No. VIII. is rather adapted for the literary than for the artistical critic.—The next paper notices the conflagration of the two theatres, not sufficiently with the view to teach a better construction of play-houses. The excessive size of the London theatres has destroyed the dramatic art: nothing can be heard but song, nor seen but pageantry; and beautiful dialogue and natural acting are lost on the eye and ear. The artist should ascertain the greatest diameter of house in which a good play can be enjoyed.

No. X. is one of the best pieces of writing in this collection: it proceeded from the pen of the late Mr. Opie, and treats of composition in painting, exemplifying the principal rules with well-chosen and elaborate illustration. We should make quotations with pleasure, but we prefer to recommend the entire dissertation both to the artist and to the critic.

In No. XI., Mr. Cavallo presents a heterogeneous essay on the temperature of the human body, which little concerns the artist; and No. XII., by Mr. Rigaud, is as heterogeneous on topics which more concern him.

No. XIV., by Mr. Hoare, discusses the offices of Painting. Why is the expression of poetic imagery the highest office of painting? Does allegory interest as much as pathos? Can Rubens draw a tear like Annibal Caracci?—Love and pity are the only passions in which the painter approaches the power of the poet. In love, indeed, he can surpass it; for this is more a passion of the eye than of the ear.

Mr. Cavallo again, in No. XV., treats of the use and abuse of the reasoning faculty; another incongruous insertion.—No. XVI. relates to theatrical representations, with a reference not to picturesque but to dramatic art.—No. XVIII., by Mr. D'Israeli, agreeably evolves the theory of letter-writing.

The XIXth No., by Mr. West, deserves some distinction. It impressively recommends correctness of outline: but it would also have been well to recommend to our English painters *industry*. We do not see enough of finish for the delineation of youth, grace, and beauty, in our more celebrated artists. They paint as if for altar-pieces, which are to be hung

high, to be drawn large, to be seen from afar, and to escape examination in detail :—but portraits and cabinet-paintings are all destined for close observation. The nearer the eye, the more insufferable is coarseness, and the more offensive that violence of light and shade which conceals all but a favourite face or two. Titian painted in the open air ; our artists paint as if they were in jail. Catching lights streaming from above may assist in the first outlines of a portrait, but are impossible where the scenery lies abroad ; yet, in the Vestal with a sieve, we see among fields of corn the illumination of a cellar. The great old painters took apprentices : having made sketches of their large works, in which the composition and colouring, the first objects of vulgar attention, were predetermined, the pupils then dilated the sketch ; and the painter corrected their outlines, finished the copied faces, and left the subordinate parts nearly as the pupils made them. They did not, however, tolerate any *slobbered* work, nor any attempt to substitute blotches of colour for definitions of surface ; and they made every thing their own by mending whatever was unworthy of them. When we have learnt to rival in *execution* the artists of former times, we shall find that figures taken from English nature, and subjects borrowed from English poetry and history, will also acquire a celebrity and a recompence equal to those that were enjoyed of old. How Westall rises in popularity as a painter ! because he borrows from native beauty the idea of his favourite features and forms.

The editor, in No. XX., again adverts to the stage ; and in some concluding notices he reveals the sources whence he has obtained contributions.

In a subsequent edition of these volumes, much might be omitted with advantage to the whole. Why not throw out, as irrelevant, all that relates not to painting or to sculpture ; and why not obliterate all those petty notices, which only served to eke out the successive sheets of a periodical work ? In this way, an instructive and cheap octavo volume might be derived from a heterogeneous and often insignificant mass of materials ; — which includes, however, criticisms of the skilled, and reasonings of the tasteful.

ART. IV. *The Book of Job* ; translated from the Hebrew, by the late Miss Elizabeth Smith, Author of "Fragments in Prose and Verse." With a Preface, and Annotations, by the Rev. F. Randolph, D.D. 8vo. pp. 200. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c. 1810.

EXCESSIVE admiration is very apt to mislead the judgment, In a thousand instances, this observation is exemplified, and

and particularly in appreciating the value of early genius. Miss Smith was certainly one of those literary phenomena which all persons of talent and taste will contemplate with pleasure; and that we have not been parsimonious in doing justice to her abilities, and to her assiduity in improving her mind, will be seen by turning to our account of her "*Fragments in Prose and Verse*," in our last volume, (p. 67.) where we exhibited a sketch of her singular life, and lamented with her biographer the premature termination of her sublunary course. While, however, we are ready to admit that this young lady towered above most of her sex in her ardour for knowledge, and in her literary application, we cannot think with Dr. Randolph that she has produced a version of the Book of Job which may boast of surpassing excellence. Wonders, indeed, have not ceased, if a young woman, almost self-taught, and with the aid only of a Hebrew Grammar and Parkhurst's Lexicon, can so far outstrip all the learned divines and biblical scholars of the age, as to give a translation of one of the most difficult books of the O. T., which may be characterized as without an equal. What will Dr. Stock, the Bishop of Killalla, say to the eulogies paid by Dr. Randolph to Miss Smith's new version of the Book of Job? If the petticoat had beaten the mitre in the race of Hebrew literature, the ladies might indeed hold up their heads, and dispute the equity of St. Paul's restriction against their speaking in the church! The ungrateful office, however, will devolve on us, of shewing that this translation, which Miss Smith left among her papers, though it be a monument of uncommon talents, does not display that pre-eminent merit which is so warmly ascribed to it by her learned editor. It may be proper first to allow Dr. Randolph to give his opinion in his own words:

'The task of editing this last specimen of Miss Smith's talents, that is intended for publication, has devolved upon me; and let me be allowed to say, that in the prosecution of it, great has been my reward. More happy, or more instructive hours have I never passed than those in which I was occupied in following the steps of my dear departed friend along the paths of Hebrew literature; and so many, and so new, were the beauties which daily unfolded themselves, that I felt like a careless traveller, taken back to scenes he had visited before, and led by the hand of taste to different points of view, the better to observe and admire the rich variety of prospect.

'From knowing little of the progress Miss Smith had made in the study of the Hebrew language, nothing could exceed my astonishment, when the following translation was first submitted to my perusal. Not having time, perhaps I might more justly say, not deeming myself competent to decide critically upon its merits, I sent it to a friend, upon whose judgment I could rely, before I ventured to hazard any opinion of my own. That judgment has been pronounced

nounced, and under the sanction of it, I am authorised to produce this version of the Book of Job, not as a work that claims indulgence, from the youth or sex of the author; or which might plead the disadvantages under which it was prosecuted, in extenuation of its faults and errors; but as a work of intrinsic and superior excellence, and "conveying," as my friend expresses himself, "more of the true character and meaning of the Hebrew, with fewer departures from the idiom of the English, than any other translation whatever that we possess." As such, I do produce it; and so far as a diligent and accurate comparison of this translation, partially or wholly, with almost every other extant, (at least with all I could procure, or read,) may entitle me to make the assertion, I scruple not to pronounce it to be, upon the whole, more clear and satisfactory, more grammatically accurate, more closely expressive of the literal meaning, and, though preserving a native lustre of its own, more distinctly reflecting the brightness of its glorious original, than any which have fallen under my observation.

Respecting Miss Smith's means of study, the extent of her attainments, her remarks on and deviations from the common version, and her ideas of the nature of the book of Job, farther hints are given at the end of the preface:

'A few chapters of Genesis, many of the Psalms, and some parts of the Prophets, filled some scattered leaves among her papers, and exhibit proofs of her unwearied application to the study of the holy writings. It may fairly therefore be alleged, that with the aid she experienced from the Grammar and Lexicon of Parkhurst, and without any other direction than what she collected from an accurate investigation of the roots, and then following and considering the connection between them and their derivatives; from making, in short, the Hebrew language explicative of itself; she has extracted from this inexhaustible mine of divine knowledge (for such it may be truly called) the rich ore of learning, on which she has so happily stamped a value by her own exquisite skill and judgment.

'Through the whole of her remarks and alterations, she never alludes to, and, I am confident, never saw, any other version but that of our Bible; and although in her occasional deviations from it, there is, in many passages, a similarity of construction with that of some or other of our best commentators, there is also a certain dissimilarity in the turn of thought, or the mode of expression, which peculiarly marks it to be her own, and removes any suspicion of her having borrowed from them, or of having been biassed by any pre-conceived opinion.

'As to the Book of Job itself, either with regard to the reality of the history, the form and character of the poem, the antiquity of its origin, or the person of its supposed author, no traces of Miss Smith's opinion were discovered among her papers. But as in various parts of the body of the translation, her sentiments may be inferred, as she, directly or indirectly, brings an accession of evidence to many of these controverted points, and more firmly strengthens the position, on which rests the grand article of our faith, "that the Old Testament

is not contrary to the New; that the patriarchal belief was that of Christianity, in type and figure; and that Job, like Abraham, rejoiced to see his Saviour's day, and was glad;" I thought it best to affix any remarks I had to offer, to the different passages as they occurred, and which the reader will find in the subjoined Appendix. He will have to lament, indeed, that the notes are far less valuable than I hoped to make them, from the want of many observations, I had reason to expect, from the pen of my learned friend Dr. Magee; but which the labours of his official situation, in the first instance, and a serious accident and indisposition afterwards, when time was more at his disposal, rendered him unable to supply. This also has occasioned some delay in the publication, which must in no wise be attributed to any proposed, or completed, alteration of Miss Smith's manuscript. Not a single phrase or word has undergone correction, though in a few places the scholar, as well as the friend, will be filled with sorrow, that the hand is cold, which alone could be authorized to make it.'

We cannot perceive on what ground Dr. R. is confident that Miss S. never saw any version but that of our Bible. Is it improbable that she had seen that to which we have just alluded as having been published by Bishop Stock? * As to her sentiments respecting the character, objects, and antiquity of the poem, these are inferred by her editor and annotator from various parts of the translation, she herself having left nothing expressly on these subjects; and to us it is no matter of regret that she did not discuss these controverted points. Dr. R. wishes to have it understood, probably from her version of Job xix. 25, that she believed that the Old is not contrary to the New Testament, and that she regarded Job in this passage as declaring his faith in Christ and his Resurrection: but, with submission to Dr. R., this attempt to support the orthodoxy of Miss Smith is somewhat unfortunate. If Job in the above-cited place evidently asserts the coming of Christ, as a deliverer from death, and the resurrection of the body at the last day, the Old is manifestly contrary to the New Testament; for it is the proud declaration of the latter that "*life and immortality (or incorruption) were brought to light by the Gospel*;" and, therefore, if Job had previously revealed the distinguishing doctrine of Christianity, this position of the N. T. is contradicted by the Old. Nothing, however, can be more plain to us than that Job did not see the day of the Saviour of the world; that in the passage translated "I know that my Redeemer liveth," &c. he had no reference, prophetically, to the coming of Jesus Christ; and that if Jesus Christ himself had regarded this verse as pointing to him and to a future state, he

* See our Review, Vol. liii. N. S. p. 392.

would have quoted it in his controversy with those who denied a resurrection. The passage is only declarative of Job's faith in God as his deliverer, and of his assurance that his sufferings would terminate happily, as they are made to do at the end of the poem; which is evidently dramatic, has a dramatic effect, and was most probably composed during the Babylonish captivity, in order to comfort the afflicted Jews, — or subsequently to their return, in reference to that instructive feature in their history*.

Dr. R. admires Miss Smith's 'bold and beautiful illustrations of this extraordinary book,' and expresses the fullest conviction, after much research, that his young female friend has not *been wise beyond what is written*. In the subjoined annotations, he endeavours to justify his admiration: but we repeat that we are bound to tell him, without reserve, that we cannot allow to this young lady's version the praise which he claims for it, nor assent to the justice of those criticisms by which he would buttress his opinions. Let us see how far the peculiarities of this new translation of the book of Job render it preferable to its predecessors; and how far Miss Smith, by her ingenuity and conjectural adroitness, has elucidated its obscurities.

In chap. i. 6., instead of the common version, "And there was a day when the sons of God came to present themselves," &c. Miss S. reads, 'And the day was, and *the sons of perdition* came to set themselves against Jehovah;' adding in a note that '*the sons of God* would have been *בְּנֵי אֱלֹהִים* as it occurs in many passages of Scripture,' and that she does not know that the article *ה* appears any where else, prefixed to Elohim, *in regimine*, except in the 6th chapter of Genesis. Her annotator applauds this bold variation, and contends that it is defensible on the strongest ground; though he does not venture to guarantee Miss Smith's accurate knowledge of the Hebrew text, in her assertion respecting the article. He must have been aware, indeed, that it *is* prefixed to Elohim *in regimine*, Psalm lxxvii. 3. as well as in the places which he has quoted in his note; and this proof of his fair Hebræan's ignorance should have induced him to as-

* Dr. R. adduces chap. viii. 8, 9, 10, in proof of the antiquity of the book of Job, and quotes a passage from Mr. Davies's "Celtic Researches" in corroboration of his opinion: but his spectacles are much greater magnifiers than ours, if by their aid he discovers any traces of the remote antiquity of this poem in these texts. On what slender threads will some ingenious men hang an hypothesis? The regular dramatic structure of this book is a decisive evidence against that high antiquity for which some critics contend. For a farther view of this subject, we refer our readers to our account of Bishop Stock's translation of Job, already cited.

sert her cause more guardedly. We must ask for Dr. R.'s authority for regarding the ׀ emphatic as having a power of completely subverting the meaning of the word to which it is affixed? If this particle, when prefixed to Elohim in *regimine*, expels from it every idea of God, and replaces it with that of the Evil One, then Psalm l:xxvii. 3., the place which we have quoted, should have been translated, not "the city of God," but *the city of devils, of perdition, or of the sons of idolatry*.—The variation of '*setting themselves against,*' instead of "*presenting themselves before,*" will not make sense with the context. The same may be said of the new version of Chap. xx. 10. '*Blessing God and dying.*'

Chap. iii. 7. is thus rendered;

'Lo! that night shall be a *desolate rock*,
No voice of mirth shall enter it,'

Here Parkhurst is followed by Miss S., as well as by the Bishop of Killalla; but surely לִסְוֵי is better rendered by *solitary*, as in the common version, than by *flint* or *rock*. In Isaiah xlix. 21, where the same Hebrew word occurs, *solitary* is the obvious meaning.

Chap. iii. 8. — 'It shall be cursed, as the (natal) day
Of him who is about to rouse the *crocodile*,'

is preferable to the "*ready to raise their mourning,*" of the Bible-version: but Dr. Stock's version is to the same effect, viz. "*ready to surprise the crocodile.*" The '*eye-lids of the dawn*' in the 9th verse is poetical, and close to the original: but '*Be darkened the stars of its morning breeze*' is not equal to the Bishop of Killalla's "*Darkened be the stars of its twilight.*"

Chap. iii. 24. '*My sighing is instead of bread.*' — *Instead* is not a correct version of לִפְנֵי. Much preferable is the Bishop of K.'s translation, "*My sighs intrude on my meals.*"

The negative term אֵלֶּיךָ is overlooked in Chap. iv. 6.

'Is this thy reverence, thy confidence,
Thy hope, and the uprightness of thy ways?'

At Chap. v. 1. is a novelty which Dr. R. steps forwards in a note to defend:

'Declare now if thou hast any sin,
And to which of the holy ones wilt thou turn?'

The absurdity is striking, to represent Job's friends as calling on him to declare whether he had any sin or was perfect. The sense is evidently this, *make thy proclamation, and demand an answer.*

Chap. v. 7. — 'For man is born to trouble,
And the sons of flame fly upward.'

Why is this alteration made? Miss Smith's oracle, Parkhurst, tells us that the ך in comparisons signifies *As*, and refers to this place.

V. 10. 'Who giveth rain on the face of the earth
And sendeth water on the face of the *desart*.'

The Bible-version, "And sendeth waters on *the fields*," is preferable. Parkhurst would have informed Miss S. that the original word comes from a root which signifies *to divide*, so that it refers to a country portioned out.

Chap. vi. 6. 'Will the insipid be eaten, because there is no salt?
Is there any taste in *the drivel of dreams*?'

Dr. Randolph quotes Parkhurst as the source from which Miss S. derived this variation, but is ready to admit that it is 'no favourable amendment.' Instead of amendment, we call it a very palpable deterioration. Whoever heard of tasting the drivel of dreams? Though the Bp. of K. wonders how the Jewish commentators extracted "the white of an egg" out of this text, and renders the latter part of the verse

'Is there any taste in the drip of the rock,'

we are inclined to prefer the common version. The reduplication of the sense, or what is called the parallelism, requires in the second line the mention of something which, on account of its insipidity or little taste, is eaten with salt to give it a relish, and the white of an egg is a well chosen exemplification: but "the drip of the rock," or 'the drivel of dreams,' cannot be eaten, and therefore cannot be eaten with salt. Besides, without referring to Montanus, Buxtorf, or to the Lexicon affixed to Origen's Hexapla, it will be sufficient to quote the authority of Calasio on the word which Miss S. renders dreams, and which the Bishop interprets *rock*. From חלם, *pinguis*, Calasio derives חלמות *vitellus* or *albumen ovi*; adding; *sic appellatus quod sit pinguis aut sanus*, and referring to Job vi. 6. The first sense of חלם is *somnium*: but this is not every sense; and the context must guide the translator in his choice of meanings. In Job vii. 14. בחלמות is very properly rendered *in somniis*: but to translate this word *dreams*, in the place under consideration, is to make it downright nonsense. Is the *drivel of dream* more tasteless than any other drivel?

Chap. vi. 13. Dr. R. prefers, and with reason, Miss Smith's translation of this verse, instead of the Bible-version: but that of Dr. Stock is perhaps more eligible than either.

Chap. vii. 1. is rendered,

'Is not man a *soldier* on earth?
And his days like the days of an *hirceling*?'

כַּנְז certainly signifies *militia*, or *te-*
exhibited literally, will thus stand

Is not a *state of warfare* to
And the days of a mercenary h

Ib. v. 6. is exactly like that of the B.

Ib. v. 12. 'Am I a serpent of the water
That thou settest a watch over

would be superior to the Bible-version, and to
of K. if the construction of the Hebrew would
"there's the rub."

Verses 12, 13, 14. are not improved by Miss S.

Chap. ix. 5. 'For he has *reduced them* (the mo-
dust.' Where did the fair translator learn that the sense
was to reduce to dust?—not from Parkhurst.

Instead of *Arcturus*, *Orion*, and *Pleiades*, verse 9, in
English Bible, or of Πλειάδα και Ἑσπερον και Ἀρκτουρον of
LXX, Miss S. follows Parkhurst and Stock, and substitutes
'*blight*, *cold*, and *genial warmth*:' but we are disposed to think
that *Har*, *Chesil*, and *Chima*, are names of stars or constellations.
The first of these names occurs again in chap. xxxviii. 32. The
Talmudists refer it to a constellation; (see on the word חַי in
the Lexicon subjoined to Origen's Hexapla;) and 'lead along
the blight with her sons,' as it is translated in the book before
us, is by no means satisfactory. Dr. R. doubts whether the
idea of *stars*, in chap. ix. 9. ought to be relinquished.

Notwithstanding Dr. R.'s attempt to justify Miss Smith's
new mode of giving verse 22. 'She is broken with grief,' &c.
we continue our vote for the common version.

V. 35. is thus newly exhibited,

'Then will I speak and not fear,
But now I stand not upon equal terms.'

The lady's annotator has subjoined this explanatory note: 'In-
stead of constraining יָמַי as a compound particle and pronoun,
(*with me*.) Miss Smith takes it from יָמַי to stand: my
standing. And יָ which our translators have rendered ad-
verbially, she takes as a noun, signifying base, or founda-
tion; thus, I am not on the same base, or level, in my stand-
ing.'—Let it speak for itself. It is certainly far superior to
Dr. Stock's, "For nonsense I am, if compared with him."

Chap. xi. 7. 'But a vain man (a fool) will become wise,
When the wild ass's colt is born a man.'

This truism is not exactly what the author of the book of Job
meant to convey in this place.

Miss Smith's Translation of the Book of Job.

148 Chap. xii. 2. 'Verily ye are deep.' We did not know till now that the St. Giles's slang, *a deep one*, for a cunning or satirical fellow, was borrowed from the Hebrew.

The suggestion of Schultens, as stated in the note to v. 8. is very probable; and by the introduction of the 'reptiles of the earth,' the enumeration is complete.

V. 28. of chap. xiii. is transposed by Miss S. to the beginning of chap. xiv., where it finishes the description of the vanity of man as mortal. This alteration is certainly judicious.

Chap. xiv. 14. is thus rendered :

'All the days of my appointed time will I wait,
Till my *renovation* come ;'

and in order to justify this new version, Dr. Randolph contends that *renewal* is the precise meaning of the word חֲלִיפָה: but, if he turns to Buxtorf, he will be convinced that the sense of חֲלִיפָה is *mutatio*; and we maintain, though we must not here enlarge on the point, that the argument of Job requires this idea. As we have said above, to make Job a believer in the resurrection of the body would prove too much.

Chap. xvi. 20. Instead of "My friends scorn me; but mine eye poureth out tears unto God," Miss S. thus exhibits the text:

'My Mediator, my friend,
To God his eyes drop tears.'

The annotator calls this version 'singularly beautiful as well as literal.' In our judgment it is neither: but we pass hence to Job xix. 24. *et seq.* in order to consider Dr. R.'s long note on this passage. He asks whether we are not authorized to apply the expressions of Job to a direct acknowledgement of his belief in a *Resurrection*? To this question we confidently reply in the negative, boldly asserting that the whole drift and scope of the poem refer solely to Job's restoration to temporal prosperity; and that the doctrine of the Resurrection of the body and the rewards of Eternity would be out of place in this drama. The deliverance, for which the sacred poet endeavours to prepare us by Job's confession of faith, is that which comes out at the end of the poem.—'Whatever form of construction,' says Dr. R. 'these words are made to assume, they evidently denote a restoration from a corrupted to an incorrupted state.' This position we admit. Job was afflicted by a loathsome disease, in which the very worms ate through his skin into his flesh; yet he confided in the goodness of God to restore him to health and soundness of body. The New Testament dispensation represents sublunary afflictions, when sustained with virtue,

virtue, as issuing in "an eternal weight of glory:" but this is not the lesson inculcated by the book of Job. If Dr. R. would advert to its manifest design, he would see at once that his whole argument is baseless. Let us look to the beginning of the poem. There Satan is restrained from taking away Job's life, so that the whole plot and moral must be confined to this side of the grave.—Let us look to the end of the poem. There the *dénouement* takes place, and the lesson to be taught is substantiated; which is, not that afflicted virtue will be triumphant in a future state, but that even in this life a reward is given to the righteous. Much stress is laid by Dr. R. on the exclamation of Job, "Oh that thou would'st hide me in the grave; that thou would'st keep me secret till thy wrath be past," &c. but in this passage the sufferer means only to express his wish that he could be put under ground, (as we say) or in some cave, till the storm was blown over. It conveys no reason for supposing that Job contemplated the resurrection of his body. We shall not pursue this subject any farther;—nor must we, indeed, make any great addition to this article: but, before we bring it to a close, we will state an instance in which Miss Smith has given sense to a passage which, as usually read, is to the last degree bombastic. We mean Job xxxix. 19. "Hast thou given the horse strength? Hast thou clothed his neck with thunder?" Miss S. thus translates, or rather reads;

"Hast thou given strength to the horse?
Hast thou clothed his neck with the shaking mane?"

and to this version Dr. R. subjoins the following note:

"This certainly reads not so poetical as, *Hast thou clothed his neck with thunder*; and which the word *רעמך* will undoubtedly signify. But is not this one of those noble and sublime expressions, of which one dares not question the meaning? Otherwise it might be asked, how can a neck be clothed with thunder; and are we not impressed with the terror, rather than with the justness, of the simile? Besides, the description, here, is of the horse's strength and beauty; the latter of which greatly consists in the flowing mane. What says Homer, quoted by Parkhurst?

"— — — αμφὶ δὲ χεῖρας,
ὤμος ἀσπιδόεντα."

"His mane dishevelled o'er his shoulder flies."

What says Virgil?

"*Luduntq; juba per colla per armos.*"

To reconcile the metaphor, Scott, whose translation, generally speaking, is very grand, has rendered it worse.

"Hast thou with prowess fill'd the martial horse,
Thou tan'd his throat with roaring thunder's force,"

This keeps nearer the image of thunder, as to sound ; but not as to sense : for the comparison of neighing with thunder is to the highest degree hyperbolical. Schultens renders it, *convestis cervicem ejus tremore alacri*. Vulgate—*circumdabis collo ejus binnitum*. Septuagint—*οιδύσαι δὲ τραχήλῳ αὐτοῦ βοῶν*. Chaldee—*indues collum ejus furore*. In none, is thunder ever alluded to ; and better than all these is the picture of the shaking and flowing mane.

Miss S. had no other authority than that of Parkhurst for rendering רעפה *flowing* or *shaking mane* ; for in this acceptation it no where else occurs : but here it makes sense, and therefore let it be adopted.

Considering the age of Miss Smith, and the circumstances under which she studied the Hebrew language, her translation of the Book of Job may certainly be deemed a very surprising work ; and had it not been characterized in the extravagant terms of commendation with which Dr. Randolph has introduced it to the public, it might have borne generally a more favourable report than it will gain from that scrutiny which his eulogium seems to challenge. In several instances, indeed, he points out Miss Smith's errors ; and we wish, as we before intimated, that her mistakes had induced him to speak in more qualified terms of her performance. It was evidently left in an unfinished state ; and the editor felt himself bound in honour not to make the smallest correction. We have it, therefore, just as Miss S. wrote it ; and we receive it as a monument of her industry and genius, though we cannot regard it as having effected much towards the elucidation of the Book of Job.

ART. V. *A Treatise on Hemp*, including a comprehensive Account of the best Modes of Cultivation and Preparation as practised in Europe, Asia, and America ; with Observations on the Sunn Plant of India, which may be introduced as a Substitute for many of the Purposes to which Hemp is exclusively applied. By Robert Wissett, Esq., F.R. and A.S., Clerk to the Committee of Warehouses of the East India Company. With an Appendix, on the most effectual Means of producing a Sufficiency of English grown Hemp, by the Right Hon. Lord Somerville, 4to. pp. 296, 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

At a time when our commercial intercourse with the maritime states of Europe and America is almost entirely suspended, it is of the utmost importance that we should endeavour to supply the deficiency of foreign importation, by cultivating with more attention, and in a greater degree, those articles which we have been accustomed to purchase from neighbouring nations. The wide extent of our colonial territory, ranging through

through almost every climate of the globe, and embracing almost every variety of soil and situation, should at least procure us *this* advantage, as a compensation for the enormous expence of blood and treasure by which it has been acquired and maintained; and should enable us to supply our manufacturers at home with all those raw materials, which such various climates, soils, and situations are capable of producing. If the genius of Napoleon can triumph over the loss of all his colonies, by transferring to his continental dominions many of their most useful products, why may not Britons emulate the example; and transplant some of the luxuries of France and Spain from the shores of the Mediterranean, while they are still accessible, to some of those southern regions which we have wrested from our formidable foe or his allies? If the sugar-cane, the indigo, and the cotton-plants, may be made to flourish in the plains of Languedoc, and at the foot of the Pyrenees, (and we see no reason for rejecting the supposition,) surely the vine, the olive, and the mulberry, may be cultivated with equal or more success on the high grounds of Jamaica, on the fertile lands about the Cape of Good Hope, or in the prolific tracts of Hindoostan.

The treatise now before us is intended to prove, that one of the most valuable of our imports from the Baltic may be advantageously cultivated on our own waste lands at home; and that our deficiency in that article may be supplied from our territories in the East, where several plants of a similar nature are produced in abundance. The cultivation of hemp, to a certain extent, has prevailed for ages in England: but, although such crops are in general highly lucrative to the farmer, they are regarded as injurious to the soil, and thus adverse to the interest of the landlord; and hence it has been the practice with some proprietors to insert, in the leases granted to their tenants, clauses altogether prohibiting the culture of hemp on their farms. The short Appendix to Mr. Wissett's work contains some observations by Lord Somerville, intended to persuade landlords to withdraw these prohibitions; and his Lordship's arguments are seconded by his own example: since, as he informs us, he has strongly advised the growth of hemp on his estates. From a communication, however, transmitted to Lord Somerville by Mr. Wing, an agent of the late Duke of Bedford, we learn that a clear profit of 8l. may be expected from each acre of land sowed with hemp; a profit which, considering the impoverishment of the soil and consequent expence of manuring attending that crop, is much less encouraging to the farmer than we had been led to suppose. Since, then, the high price of land fit for the growth of hemp (such land
letting

letting at 9l. or 10l. per acre,) must act as a considerable check to the culture of an article so essential to the welfare of this country, it is surely of the utmost consequence that the extensive tracts of heath, fen, and bog, which still lie waste throughout the British islands, should be inclosed and applied to this great national object; and we are assured, by Mr. Arthur Young, that such land is admirably suited to the culture of hemp, and commonly produces an abundant crop.

With respect to the merits of the volume before us, as a literary production, we cannot rate them very high. It is professedly a compilation; and though by no means deficient in method, it is one of the most bald compilations that we have seen. Instead of digesting what he had collected from the Encyclopædias and various tracts on agriculture which he consulted, into one uniform and connected whole, the author has servilely copied the paragraphs on each head, attaching to them the name of the work from which they are taken. Thus the volume is a string of quotations which are often at variance with each other, and the reader is left to his own judgment in collecting the truth from this jumble of discordant evidence. Some of the quotations are highly amusing, and remind us of our old acquaintance Dr. Pangloss, with his "*Desine*,"—*Terrence—hem!* for though none of Mr. Wissett's quotations are so short as to contain only one word, many of them do not exceed a single line.

The treatise is accompanied by five engravings, which undoubtedly add to the expence of the volume, but afford very little illustration of the subject. The appearances of the hemp-plant in the various stages of its growth are represented in the first three. The last two exhibit the operations of skutching and heckling; and we perceive, from the costume of the workmen, and the general character of the design, that they are copied from a French publication.

ART. VI. *A Tour through some of the Islands of Orkney and Shetland*, with a View chiefly to Objects of Natural History, but including also occasional Remarks on the State of the Inhabitants, their Husbandry and Fisheries. By Patrick Neill, A.M., Secretary to the Natural History Society of Edinburgh. With an Appendix containing Observations, political and economical, on the Shetland Islands; a Sketch of their Mineralogy, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 239. 5s. Boards. Murray.

THE author of this tour, in company with some friends, embarked at Leith, in three days came to anchor off the town of Thurso in the North of Scotland, and had no sooner cast his

his eye on the shore, than he began (like our countryman Dr. Johnson) to murmur at the bare appearance of the country from the total want of trees:—but the recollection of an extraordinary draught of salmon at this place in the year 1744, the ‘greatest perhaps ever heard of,’ as the author says, seems to have been some compensation for this deficiency in the picturesque beauty of these northern regions. The travellers had at this time, we must presume, made a hearty dinner of that delicious fish, and thus found their belief in the marvellous greatly enlarged. What effect a similar repast might have on our minds, we despair of bringing to the test of experiment: but neither the narrative of Sir John Sinclair, drawn up at the end of half a century after the circumstance took place, nor the certification of three old men, some of them quite illiterate, who were present at this miraculous draught, gives any strength to our conviction.

In crossing the Pentland Frith, the tourists seem to have been greatly alarmed at the magnitude of the waves; and as the author, to shew his learning, is extremely fond of commonplace-quotation, which he is rigidly just in tracing to its proper source, (as when he formally announces in a note the name of Milton, from whom the phrase “darkness visible” is borrowed,) we wonder that the address of Horace to the ship which carried his friend Virgil to Athens did not occur; particularly when he speaks of the courage of him who first made a sea-voyage;

“ *illi robur et as triplex
circa pectus erat:*” —

but, having escaped the dangers of a ‘perpetually furious tide,’ the travellers landed safely in Orkney, and reached Kirkwall, the capital, where new objects of surprize and offence immediately excite the author’s animadversion; and especially the want of a pier or convenient landing-place, and of a regular market where the sea teems with fish: though in all this he has forgotten that trade necessarily precedes the facilities for carrying it on, and that buyers form an essential requisite in the establishment of a market for any commodity.

The narrative proceeds in a similar manner with the detail of various occurrences which arose in visiting some of the other islands of Orkney. The party next directed their course towards Shetland; and having made a rapid survey of some of these more northern islands, they returned to Leith, after an absence of little more than six weeks. The account of the tour, which was drawn up on the author’s return to Edinburgh, first appeared in the *Scots Magazine*, where it might probably

probably have remained undisturbed, among other ephemeral productions of a like nature, without much injury to the author's reputation : but it gave rise to a keen controversy between him and some of the Shetland *lairds*, (landholders,) who, he says, had taken offence at the freedom and severity of his remarks on their oppressive conduct towards their tenants. In this dispute, the author asserts, his character was violently traduced ; and the tour is republished for the purpose of effecting his vindication from the obloquy of his antagonists. That part of it which contains the narrative is included in the first 113 pages ; while, in the ardor of the author's patriotism and humanity, the controversial discussions in the appendix are extended to more than double the original work.

We have no intention of entering into the merits of this controversy, which, like most others of the same kind, is a very idle dispute. The conceit and dictatorial strain of the author are by no means its least conspicuous characters. The merest trifles are magnified into affairs of great importance ; the most obvious propositions are proved by a long train of argument ; and statements, which the writer himself says have never been questioned, are amply supported by numerous extracts from various publications. In short, Mr. Neill is one of the most determined controversialists that we have ever encountered ; for

— “ c'en tho' vanquish'd, he could argue still.”

GOLDSMITH.

We cannot avoid expressing considerable doubt of his fairness or candour, also, when we find him running to printing-offices and associating with printer's devils, for the purpose of worming out secrets to be employed as arguments against his antagonists.

That oppression and poverty prevail in Shetland, we are not prepared to deny ; we fear it is too true : but that ‘ oppression reigns uncontrolled,’ according to the language of Pennant, the author himself has actually furnished us with the means of disproving : for he informs us that the tenants have already succeeded in resisting one exaction of their landlords ; and if resistance has been triumphant in one case, we can see no reason why it should fail against other violations of the laws and established usages of the country.

Of Mr. Neill's speculations on some of the great points of political economy, we are little disposed to entertain a very high opinion ; since we cannot bring ourselves to believe that a six weeks' tour through such an extent of country could enable the author to judge so correctly of its local advantages,
and

and to form so precise an estimate of the peculiar manners and prejudices of the inhabitants, as to point out with the confidence which he manifests the means of redressing their grievances, and to suggest the proper sources of improvement. To look for any material benefit from discussions of this kind, it would be necessary to conduct them with a more conciliatory spirit, and with more temperate language : but we really suspect that other motives besides 'the melioration of the condition of the inhabitants' have had their full share of influence in the controversy.—We judge more favourably of the author's remarks on the various objects of natural history that fell within his observation : but we must warn him to be less minutely critical in his investigations, and less dogmatical in his assertions, if he has any wish to render his labours more acceptable and more useful.

ART. VII. *Reflections sur les Notes du Moniteur, &c. &c.* Reflections on the Notes in the Moniteur of the 14th September 1810. By a Friend to Truth. 8vo. pp. 21. London.

ART. VIII. *Reflections sur les Notes, &c. i. e.* Reflections on the Notes in the Moniteur of the 16th, 23d, 29th and 30th November 1810, with biographical Notices of Junot, Massena, Ney, and Regnier. By a Friend to Truth. 8vo. pp. 68. London.

THESE pamphlets are evidently the production of a French royalist, who writes with great vehemence, or great appearance of vehemence, against Bonaparte and his adherents. The first mentioned is possessed of very little interest, being expressed in such a train of abuse and confident assertion, as to make a considerate reader afraid at every step of putting faith in its allegations. The author dwells on the battle of Wagram, and says that it could not fail to have been won by the Austrians had their commanders acted judiciously : but he gives us, unfortunately, no testimony to that effect except his own. A few pages afterward, he breaks out rather abruptly into an eulogy of Louis XVIII., and extols his paternal affection for the deluded inhabitants of France. One of the few points in which we are disposed to coincide with this writer, without requiring any additional evidence ; regards the Scheldt expedition ; the failure of which, he is satisfied, could not have taken place under a commander of efficiency. — The larger pamphlet is couched in terms of similar confidence, and would be almost as little deserving of attention, were it not for its biographical notices of French Generals. These, though extracted from a printed work, are not commonly known, and are very interesting

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at the present moment, because the men described have figured so recently in opposition to our troops in the Peninsula. We shall abstract and translate some of the most remarkable passages in these biographical sketches, and present our readers with the observations on Generals Eblé, Junot, Massena, Ney, and Regnier.

General Eblé is the commander of Massena's artillery. He is of the age of fifty, of tall stature, and robust constitution. His manner is soldier-like, his look severe, and his language coarse. He entered the sixth regiment of artillery at the age of sixteen; and discovering a large share of zeal, intelligence, and prudence, he was made an officer in 1785. The King of Naples having applied to the French government for artillery-officers, Eblé was one of those who were sent to this monarch. His rank was that of Major; and he remained in that service till the beginning of 1792, when he was recalled to France and replaced in his former regiment. By his activity and boldness, he soon attained the rank of General of brigade and General of division. He was employed under Pichegru in the conquest of Holland, and under Moreau in the famous retreat in 1796. He also defended Kehl against the Archduke Charles, with a degree of skill and activity which attracted the admiration of the Austrians. — He is less of an extortioner than Augereau, Massena, or Ney, but he is by no means indifferent to the acquisition of money; on the contrary, he is understood to have amassed large sums in the course of service, both in Italy and Germany. He has not, however, the effrontery to make a public display of his wealth; and his habits are very simple. Having been named Minister at war for the kingdom of Westphalia, he soon became disgusted with his situation on account of the folly of Jerome Bonaparte, who allows himself to be misled by some giddy young men who flatter him and contribute to his pleasures. Eblé is justly considered as one of the first of the French artillery-commanders for a service of routine. Nothing escapes him: he is still possessed of great activity, and is extremely useful in action by his experience and coolness.

Junot is about forty years of age, and commands the 8th corps. He is above the middle size, robust, and inclined to corpulence; his look shews him to be fond of good cheer; his manner is rough, but his dress is very splendid. His parents were farmers in easy circumstances, and taught him the elements of education; but he had not made choice of a profession when the Revolution led to the formation of volunteer-battalions. He then entered into the service as a common soldier, and went through the ranks of corporal, serjeant, and platoon-officer, distinguishing himself on all occasions by coolness and intrepidity.

Bonaparte, having noticed him at the siege of Toulon, made him enter his *Etat Major*, and become afterward his aide-de-camp. Some years subsequently, he was made commandant of Paris, but was never intended for a General till he received the command of the army in Portugal. He was attended thither by two Mentors, Laborde for the infantry-service, and Kellermann for the cavalry. At Vimeira, the rout of his army would have been complete, had it not been for Kellermann; who, by his bold and able manœuvres, succeeded in restraining the pursuit of the English. Junot is a cypher in negotiation; and the success of the conferences at Cintra was due to Kellermann, who received full powers, and succeeded beyond all expectations.

Junot's courage is that of a soldier, and may be termed rashness in an ill-informed commander. He is intrusted notwithstanding with the command of three divisions, forming a total of twenty-five thousand men: but have not Charbonier and Jourdan been invested with still more important commands? Bonaparte, in his calculations, attends as much to the fidelity as to the talents of his Generals. Junot receives orders from Massena, and executes them very punctually; leaving the details to his *Etat Major*, and confining himself to the choice of quarters. In action, he is always to be found among the foremost ranks, and cool amid the hottest fire. As he has neither combination nor quickness of observation, he commits the great fault of taking the advice of any person who speaks first to him. An opposing General should never wait Junot's attack, but should fall on him unexpectedly, surprizing his camp or his cantonments, in which he will meet with little resistance. A great libertine and plunderer, possessed of some natural talents and of many corporeal qualities, but devoid of useful knowledge, Junot should be described, since the death of Lasnes, as the Most Faithful Saïd of the *Hero of Acre*.

Massena is of the age of fifty, above the middle size, strong, and well made, but coarse and harsh in his manner. He was born on the frontiers of Italy, and entered the service as a soldier at an early age. After having applied closely to his duty, and passed through the ranks of corporal and serjeant, he was a subaltern at the commencement of the Revolution. On the breaking out of the war with the King of Sardinia in 1792, he discovered much bravery and activity, and attained the rank of General of division. It was remarked, however, that his successes were due rather to obstinacy and audacity than to skill; and it was said of him that "he fought like a ram, with his forehead." He is not slow in exposing his person, and in rushing forwards to any part of his line where his presence can be useful. He was always a great plunderer; and

and when his division was at Padua in 1797, the excesses in that way were so shameful as to become the talk of the whole army. It is well known that in the subsequent year he was obliged to leave Rome, on account of the indignation which this conduct excited against him among the officers. The defeat of the Russians in 1799, the greatest of his exploits, is said to have been planned by Soult. — After the cessation of continental hostilities, Massena resided in an elegant country-house at Ruelle near Paris. In 1805, on the resumption of the war, he commanded in Italy; and in 1809, at the battle of Essling, his firmness was the chief cause of saving the French army. — On a general review of his career, he will be found much fitter for a subordinate than for a chief command. Had Soult been General of the French army at Busaco, the battle would have been fought very differently. He would have occupied the attention of the English by a crowd of riflemen; he would have united the flower of his army; and, taking advantage of the darkness of night and the nature of the ground to hide his movements, he would have poured his collected force on the convent of Busaco.

Ney is at the age of forty-two, a good figure, and an excellent horseman. His dexterity in all bodily exercises is remarkable; but his look is disfigured by the redness of his hair and eyebrows. His boldness is painted in his countenance; his dress is elegant; his manners are cold. He was born of poor parents at Saar-louis, in the German part of Lorraine, and entered the Hussar-service, because German was the language used in it. He was first a private, but became a subaltern at the beginning of the Revolution, and a captain in 1794. He obtained frequent access to General Kleber, gained his confidence by decision and activity, and thus attained the means of being brought into notice. In 1796 he was employed in the van-guard of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, and fought various actions with more credit to his courage than to his prudence. This was his general character in subsequent service, and it was not till the formation of the camp of Boulogne in 1803, that he proceeded to learn the movements of infantry: but this is not the department in which he is calculated to shine, since he has little disposition for study. His way is to push forwards on all occasions, whatever be his loss of men. Accordingly, he has been most successful when fighting under the guidance of Soult. He is coarse in behaviour to his subordinates, and a rank plunderer; Galicia and the Asturias have suffered severely from his rapacity. Against a cool and able adversary, Ney would have little chance of success; he does not understand the occurrences of the moment for making decisive movements.

ments of attack or resistance ; and, petulant in the highest degree, he would expose himself to rush into a furnace in the hope of snatching a victory.

Regnier, who is a Swiss by birth, and entered the French service at the beginning of the Revolution, is considered as one of the best informed men in France with regard to war as a science. He was employed on the staff of the army of the north, first as assistant and afterward as adjutant-general, and owed his advancement to Pichegru. In 1796 he was head of the staff to Moreau, and conducted himself with great approbation : but he is not the same man in action as in the closet. Though perfectly courageous, he has not that quickness and presence of mind which are indispensable to the success of operations in the field. When in Egypt, his services were more marked by zeal and utility than by *éclat*. He fought with courage, was attentive to the condition of his troops, and employed his leisure-moments in gratifying his turn for the arts and sciences : but not being one of Bonaparte's original followers, he was not so fortunate as to attract any great portion of eulogium. On his return from Egypt, he published an account of the expedition, which made him some enemies ; and among others General *D'Estaing*, who, being hurt by his comments, sent him a challenge. They fought with pistols in the Bois de Boulogne near Paris, and *D'Estaing* fell. Bonaparte was displeased with Regnier, and sent him on distant service to the south of France. He was afterward ordered to Naples as King Joseph's military counsellor ; it was then that he was defeated at Maida. His proper station is not in the command of a separate corps, but as head of the staff to a great army. — In regard to moral conduct, he forms a striking contrast to his colleagues ; his probity, humanity, and firmness, making him valued by all who know him.

It is to be regretted that we cannot add to this list an account of Marshal Soult ; who, we believe, approaches more to Bonaparte by uniting combination of views and decision of action, than any other of his commanders. — We take our leave of the writer of these pamphlets, by expressing a higher value for the information which he possesses respecting France, than for the method in which he is disposed to communicate it ; and by advising him, if he expects to produce conviction on the minds of his readers, not only to study moderation of language, but to adduce the evidence of others in support of his assertions.

ART. IX. *An Address to the Lincolnshire benevolent Medical Society, at their anniversary Meeting in 1809, containing an Account of the Proceedings lately adopted to improve Medical Science, and an Exposition of the intended Act for regulating Medical Education and Practice. To which is added an Appendix, comprising the Acts of Henry VIII. and the Correspondence had with the public Bodies, together with the legal Opinion of an eminent Counsel on the Subject of Medical Regulation, &c. By Edward Harrison, M. D. &c. &c. Published at the unanimous Request of the Meeting. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1810.*

WE had occasion some time ago to notice a former address from Dr. Harrison, pointing out the inefficient state of medical practice in the country at large, and requesting the co-operation of the respectable part of the profession in some plan for reforming the existing evils*. The evils which were specified were indeed but too obvious to every person, and the subject was of too much importance not to make us feel anxious that they should, if possible, be redressed; we therefore expressed ourselves friendly to the inquiry that was set on foot, and were disposed to think favourably of the manner in which it had been conducted. The volume now before us gives an account of the measures which have been taken by Dr. Harrison and his friends since his first publication; it contains the opinions both of the medical bodies, and of some respectable individuals; and it supplies also a sketch of the specific plan of reform which has been suggested by the association. We consider the affair as still in train, and this address as reporting progress; we are glad that the subject should be again brought into view; and we must farther recommend that all means should be taken to make the proceedings generally known, both to insure the co-operation of a large body of medical men, and in order to have the merits of the question thoroughly canvassed. Unless the profession at large feel an interest in the reform, and indeed express a desire that it should be accomplished, we cannot expect that it will be effected by the exertions of a few individuals, howsoever intitled to regard.

The subject of medical reform is of such wide extent, and, taken in all its consequences, embraces so great a number of objects, that we confess ourselves scarcely prepared to enter fully into all its merits. We must therefore be contented with offering some detached observations, on those points which have more particularly impressed our minds in the perusal of Dr. Harrison's tract. In the first place, it cannot

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 310.

be doubted that any general plan of reform will meet with a decided opposition from the London College of Physicians; and although the hostility of this body would not affect our judgment as to the merits of the case, we conceive that it must have a great effect on the feasibility of the scheme; so much, that we should be led to consider whether it might not be more advisable to endeavour to obtain their concurrence in some partial objects of reform, than to attempt a bolder measure in opposition to the weight of their influence. For example, we apprehend that the suppression of quack-advertisements is a matter of great importance, and would in itself remove much of the mischief of which Dr. Harrison complains; and we deem it not improbable that the College might give their assistance in the attainment of this point, though the reasons are but too evident which would prevent them from concurring in any step which might be conceived, however remotely, to entrench on their privileges. We are of opinion that it would be desirable to form in London a Medical University, which should have a regular establishment of professors, and be empowered to confer medical degrees. Were this executed on that system of liberality, and on that scale of excellence, which correspond with the information of the age and with the advantages of the metropolis, we should have a plan of medical education provided, so much superior to any that could be found elsewhere, as to make it requisite for the other British Universities to new-model and reform their systems, in order to maintain their reputation and importance, and to prevent their lecture-rooms from being deserted. We are inclined to approve that part of the proposed scheme, which would render it necessary for every person to procure a licence before he enters on the practice of any branch of the profession. As far as their jurisdiction extends, which seems to be no more than seven miles round London, the College might, under proper restrictions, regulate the licencing; and for the remainder of the kingdom the power might be vested in some authority, of which they should have a share. A specific evil in the present state of medical education is the want of some means of supplying the army with the requisite number of efficient officers; and here we apprehend that some steps might be taken for supplying this deficiency, so as not to diminish the authority of the college, while a check might be imposed against their exercising any undue power.

In the Appendix, among other important documents, we have a sensible letter which was addressed to Dr. Harrison from 'an eminent physician in Edinburgh,' which contains many acute remarks, that very much coincide with our ideas on the subject.

The writer appears to regard the advertised sale of quack-medicines, as one of the most crying evils of the present system :

"You should consider, also, that many of the richest and greatest, and who should be the wisest, men in the nation (judges, bishops, and peers), not only believe in quack medicines, and take great quantities of them, but are professed patrons of quacks, and allow their names to be used every day, in the common newspapers, as vouching for the efficacy of various quack medicines which they had employed in their own families, or on their own persons. These wise men will undoubtedly, either from vanity or for conscience' sake, oppose and reprobate, with contempt and indignation, any such plan of reform as you have in view. Would it not, therefore, be better, that the proposal should come not from physicians, but from men of other professions, or of independent fortune ; and, withal, of well established character for understanding, and probity, and knowledge ? Such men, if they are in earnest in the business, may easily procure, from regular physicians, ample information on the subject ; particularly with respect to the general nature, and if not the whole composition of quack medicines, at least the principal ingredients ; and consequently, the pernicious effects of the compound."

The difficulty of accomplishing any great or general plan of reform is forcibly pointed out :

"I heartily wish, not only for the good of mankind, but for the honour, the comfort, and the permanent interest of all men of merit in our profession, that there were no deceit in the practice of physic. But while there is so much deceit, and so much imperfection in it ; while the bulk of mankind will not believe that it is so imperfect, and eagerly wish to deceive themselves, and to be deceived by others, on that point ; while so many impudent quacks are no less eager to take advantage of the folly and credulity of mankind ; and while these abuses are not only established by the manners and customs of the people, but in a manner sanctioned by the authority of the legislature, the difficulty of correcting them must be very great, perhaps insurmountable, especially if the reformation is proposed by men who have an evident and avowed pecuniary interest in that change which they endeavour to accomplish. An unsuccessful attempt of that kind, or what the French call *un coup manqué*, on the part of our regular faculty, will be completely degrading to ourselves, and will afford matter of endless exultation and triumph to the quacks. In short, I cannot help thinking, that, before your proposed reform can be accomplished, physic must be made more perfect, physicians more honest, statesmen more enlightened, and the bulk of mankind much wiser and better than they are at present, or have ever been, or are likely to become in our time."

ART. X. *Philemon* ; or the Progress of Virtue ; a Poem. By William Laurence Brown, D.D. Principal of Marischal College and University, Aberdeen, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 44s. Boards. Longman and Co. &c.

As a theological writer, of the best intentions and the most respectable talents, Dr. Brown has been known to us for many years; both while he was Minister of the English church at Utrecht, and since the disturbances in the United Provinces have restored him to his native isle. He now appears before us as a votary of the muses, but still as the champion of morality and religion; and in this character we have much pleasure in being able to greet our old acquaintance with commendation similar to that which we have before bestowed on him as the Christian Minister, even though his poetry may be open to critical remark. His preface announces the design of his work in so clear, sensible, and modest a manner, that we cannot better apprise our readers of its object than by quoting his words:

'The design of the following Poem is not to relate an interesting story, diversified with a series of unexpected events, and advancing to one grand and important conclusion; but to trace the progress of virtuous sentiments, principles, and opinions in the human mind, and to exhibit them in a corresponding course of action. This is the object which I have constantly endeavoured to keep in view through the whole of this poetical essay. For this purpose it became necessary to make choice of an imaginary personage as the hero of the piece, in order to give to it that species of unity, of which alone such a composition is susceptible. I am aware that an *historical*, or, if the reader choose, a *biographical* poem, is not calculated to excite that interest which adheres to some important action, proceeding to its consummation through a variety of extraordinary incidents, and affording occasion to unfold a great character, as the principal agent. But my object being, as I have already stated, to sketch the progress of virtue from its dawn to its terrestrial close, I was under the necessity of pursuing the course which nature has pointed out to me, in the progress of the mental powers both intellectual and active. Their operations are so interwoven; that they cannot be separately delineated; and they exercise such a reciprocal influence, that their result is co-existent in conduct.

'If my poem had been purely didactic, I might have adopted a more philosophical plan. But this would have been much less productive of incident, have excluded a considerable part of poetical embellishment, and have had less effect in interesting the reader. I recollect that Mr. Gray, while he highly and justly commends Dr. Beattie's *Minstrel*, regrets that it has too little fable, and rather abounds with moral reflections. Laying no claim to any portion of Dr. Beattie's genius, I wished at least to compensate my deficiency

by introducing as much incident and action as the nature of my subject would admit. Indeed it was the Minstrel that first suggested to me this attempt.'

After this explanation of the *design* of the poem, we shall endeavour to add such an account of its *execution*, as will enable the reader to form some judgment of a very meritorious performance. We shall also, according to our custom, point out the faults which we have detected in the perusal of the work, and conclude our critique by a selection of one or two of the most fortunate passages, with regard either to thought or to expression.

The character of Philemon is by no means represented as perfect, but as possessed of such moral beauty and vigour as are attainable by the love of virtue, and by diligence and perseverance in the pursuit of it. His defects result from good principles carried to excess; and they are most prominent in that stage of life in which time and experience have not yet established mental discipline. Dr. Brown very judiciously proceeds to observe that, 'when ideal models of perfection are offered to the mind, and imitation of these is required, the constant excuse urged by indolence or depravity is, that they are too refined, and are exalted above the sphere of human attainment. I am afraid,' he continues, 'that this evasion is often secretly sought, in regard to that pure and perfect character, which ought to be the unvarying object of imitation in Christian practice; that, namely, of the author and finisher of our faith. The objection, however, is destitute of all foundation. For, our obligation to unceasing improvement is incontestable; and, if this be the case, nothing short of perfection can be set before us as a legitimate model. Convinced, nevertheless, that such excuses always have been and always will be urged, and that the delineation of all excellence, merely human, must, if true to the original, exhibit defect and infirmity,' the author has drawn Philemon such as we have stated above; such as may really be exhibited in the sphere in which he is supposed to move; and we cannot conceive any reasonable objection which can be offered to the comparative goodness of his character by any conscientious being. He is certainly, with all his moral qualities, less than man *ought* to be; and not more than he *could* be, under similar circumstances, and with the same advantages, though he did not make any very miraculous exertions of self-denial.

Having premised thus much, to obviate that common prejudice which the Doctor also labours to anticipate, we proceed to record the principal incidents of Philemon's life.

The

The poem commences by a natural exultation in the comparative novelty of its subject; and, warmed by the grandeur of his theme, the author very justly despises the meaner and more ordinary topics of poetic encomium. He next describes the place of Philemon's birth, brings us acquainted with his family, and traces the first steps in his education. His early thirst for knowledge, and the effects produced on his mind by pathetic narratives, especially by the remarkable occurrences in scripture, are well delineated; and the history, character, and death of our Saviour affect him as strongly as they seldom fail to impress the young and ingenuous reader. — In the second book, Philemon becomes acquainted with Greek and Roman history. The patriotic characters, in which these animating annals abound, cannot but nourish the seeds of virtue in the ardent mind; and they form an admirable preparation for the due esteem of those still more interesting heroes, of whom our own history offers so glorious a catalogue. All the generous enthusiasm, which the first perusal of the poets is calculated to excite, arises in the breast of Philemon during this most engaging of studies. This book is also enlivened by an incident which is adapted to display the active benevolence of the young man in a pleasing point of view.

In book the third, the machinery of the poem is developed. This is very simple and inartificial. The guardian angel of Philemon appears to him in a solitary cave, among his native mountains; and, telling him that the spirit whom he sees is that Ithuriel who foiled the arts of Satan, when attempting to corrupt the dreams of Eve, warns him of the various dangers of life, and promises to be his faithful attendant while he continues pure in heart, and obedient to the divine commands. He is enjoined also to preserve these supernatural visitations inviolably secret. This guardian angel is intended by the author as a sort of personification of divine grace operating on Philemon's mind. 'Some of the Fathers,' he observes, 'adopted the opinion, that to every faithful disciple of Christ is assigned a guardian spirit: — but we need not the opinion of the Fathers, nor of their predecessors the Platonists, nor the example of a host of poets, to justify the introduction of a supernatural being of the kind in question into the present work. It was necessarily, in some measure, of an allegorical nature; and we must, on the whole, compliment Dr. B.'s good taste in having sparingly introduced this dangerous species of ornament. — At the conclusion of the second book, Philemon sets out with his father for the University of St. Andrew's, of which seat of learning (under the name of Andrea)

we now receive a very amusing account; and the tribute paid to the illustrious characters, who have here obtained their academical honours, does credit to the genius and to the patriotic feelings of the writer. In the notes, he gives a still more detailed account of the luminaries of St. Andrew's; and indeed on this and on many other subjects connected with Scotland, the English reader will have to thank the Doctor for much information and entertainment. His remarks, also, are distinguished by a justice and a candour, as far as we are able to appreciate them, which supply us with no unpleasing testimony that it is very possible to be national and philosophical in our opinions respecting our own country.—May the example be followed!

Book IV. contains the second stage of youth; and in it Philemon pursues his academical studies. In the Vth, two new characters are introduced, Eugenio and Vulpellus: the former, of a good and generous disposition, but prone to excess and error; the latter, of the most corrupt mind and hypocritical demeanour. Eugenio seduces Philemon into some youthful vices by the seductive force of example: but, awakened to a sense of shame by his guardian angel, Philemon renounces his profligate or rather voluptuous friend. He is now led into the opposite extreme of severe and satirical character; and having been invited by Vulpellus to censure the follies of the University in a poetical composition, he is betrayed by that hypocrite, and incurs the danger of expulsion. By the interference of Eugenio, however, the villainy of Vulpellus is unmasked; Philemon is absolved; and he renews his friendship with Eugenio on the basis of virtue.

In the VIth book, he forms an attachment to Clara, a *protégée* and relation of his family. This heroine of the author is only a sketch, but a very pleasing one. If not adorned with the imaginary attributes of perfect beauty, intelligence, and moral excellence, Clara is an engaging natural character, and such as, fortunately for the happiness of Englishmen, abounds in every rank of civilized life in this country. Philemon now enters a course of theological reading; and on this occasion, as on every other on which a religious subject is introduced, Dr. Brown manifests the most sincere and edifying piety. The episode of Edric the hermit adds interest to this portion of the work, as does that of Maria, the mother of Clara, to a former book.

Book VII. presents us with a vision of Charity, or Divine Love; and with allegorical descriptions of her two most formidable foes, Avarice and Pride. This is, perhaps, one of the least amusing parts of the story, though the imagination dis-

played

played in the machinery is as creditable as the moral tendency of the scene is conspicuous : — but we are judiciously relieved from the approaching wearisomeness of allegory, by the incident of a shipwreck on the coast, near Philemon's residence, and by the energy and activity which his benevolence prompts him to exert on that occasion.

In the VIIIth book, Philemon commences his travels on the continent, accompanied by Eugenio. They first visit Holland; and here the reader's attention is very forcibly attracted by the ample and correct delineation of this country, which Dr. B.'s own observation has enabled him to afford. Justice is done to the Dutch character; which, previously to the debasement and subjugation of Holland by the French, was indeed very commonly misrepresented. The vices which theoretical reasoners were inclined to attribute to a commercial nation, they illiberally supposed to be really inherent in the Dutch; and that which was likely to be true passed for an established fact in the history of this people. That their pursuits, in some measure, influenced their character, is an obvious truth: but that all national honour and spirit are even now extinguished throughout Holland we cannot believe; and before its submission to the French yoke, we are sure that it was grossly slandered by the epithets of disgrace which were so generally applied to its inhabitants.

A pleasing account of the Pays de Vaud, and some striking views of the Alps, enliven the IXth Book. Here, too, we are amused with an instructive episode in the story of Agathon, the philosopher of the Alps. Contented as he is in his mountainous retreat, he justly inculcates on Philemon, who is captivated with the dream of seclusion from the world, the duty of living in society, and contributing our quantum of talents and virtues (how insignificant soever that contribution may be) to the improvement and the happiness of those with whom we live. As an animated contrast to the scene of retirement which he has lately been contemplating, Philemon is now introduced to the gay and busy idleness of the French metropolis. Here the united charms of wit, of beauty, and every accomplishment of polished life, for a while seduce the affections of the virtuous traveller: but he is effectually roused from his temporary state of delusion by the appearance of Ithuriel, with the dæmon Doulos in chains at his side, who relates the iniquity of his past life and the misery of his present condition.

The Xth book brings Philemon back to his country, where he is united in marriage with Clara, and enters on the pastoral office. The calm serenity of his present occupations, however, is soon interrupted by the rebellion in Scotland; and he not

not only exerts himself on the side of the reigning family, but bears a distinguished part in the field of Culloden. Yet having sheltered a rebel after this battle, his former brilliant services are forgotten; and, accused by the unwearied malignity of Vulpellus, he is brought to trial. By the active interference of his devoted friend Eugenio, and the collective supplications of all his flock, he is released from prison, and restored to his family: —but the last scene now approaches; and having lived just long enough to see and forgive Vulpellus, who dies in the agonies of remorse, Philemon also expires on the bosom of his beloved wife, and in the midst of admiring and lamenting friends. His death harmonizes well with his life; and the whole picture assuredly affords an instructive Christian lesson.

We should be gratified if it were in our power to commend the poetry in which this lesson is conveyed, as highly as we have approved the lesson itself: but the awards of critical justice are inexorable; and we are compelled to state that the versification is, in general, more tame and familiar than even the narrative style allows. Much of it is as completely *conversation* as the usual efforts of the few *improvisatori* with whom we have been acquainted; and, certainly, several of the books might have been *talked*. Let us not be mistaken, and supposed to mean that the materials and their arrangement could have been supplied and contrived without much labour or thought; — on the contrary, we are convinced that it required no ordinary abilities, and a mind of no common cultivation, to sketch and to fill up the plan of the present performance: but we mean that the language is often too little elevated above the tone of a summer's evening conversation, and that, when the design was thoroughly prepared, the execution of a great part of it could scarcely have cost any effort, as far as expression is concerned. Some passages, as we premised, are much more fortunately executed; we should say, many, and of these we should offer some specimens: but first we must enter on the unwelcome task of proving the justice of our censure.

The description of the village-schoolmaster, in the first book, is perhaps a fair instance of that mixture of correct design and feeble expression which we are desirous of deprecating:

- Here dwelt a man of magisterial awe,
Whose arm was terror, and whose voice was law
To all his little subjects, though the soul
Of tenderness pervaded his controul.
He lov'd them much; even when he seem'd severe,
And wish'd to rule by love, and not by fear.
His highest joy, his undiverted aim
Was, in their breasts, to kindle learning's flame,

To make them, ever led by sacred truth,
 REMEMBER THEIR CREATOR IN THEIR YOUTH,
 Observe his precepts through the maze of life,
 And shun the paths of sin, and woe, and strife.
 Though scarce possess'd of twenty pounds a-year,
 He knew the vast importance of his sphere,
 And thought that, standing in his proper light,
 A good schoolmaster was no vulgar wight.

What force would the pencil of Crabbe have given to this picture; and with what gentle colours, less real perchance but far more enchanting, would Goldsmith have invested it!

In the 2d Book, among many others, we observe the following example of flatness and insipidity, if not, indeed, of the genuine bathos in style;

' When Rome, renouncing her imperial seat,
 Had found, in Utica, her last retreat,
 When her own Cato, of undaunted soul,
 Resisted still the Conqueror's controul,
 His spirit rose, in majesty array'd,
 Breath'd on Philemon, and its fire convey'd;
 But, when the dagger shorten'd life's career,
 Philemon mourn'd the Heathen's bounded sphere.'

The last couplet is a sad falling-off from the expectation which is raised by the preceding lines. We might add some other couplets of equal tameness:

' When Louis threatens, with despotic arms,
 To shackle Europe, quaking with alarms,' &c. &c.

Dr. Brown is sometimes beguiled by the girlish graces of alliteration:

' When chiefs with chiefs, and gods with gods engage,'—
 ' When weeping woe appears in sable stole—'

but how, after having mentioned the first of English poets, could he add,

' Nor less these charm Philemon's soul—for few
 ' The British barda his early studies knew,'

We cannot admire the following description of a lady's Fondness for pathetic music:

' Still to the plaintive style inclines her choice,
 Her mind's complexion painted by her voice:
 Prompt to alternate the melodious tone
 Of griefs which bear resemblance to her own.'

Equally objectionable, if not ludicrous, are some succeeding lines:

' Soon as they move beyond the parish bounds
 The reverend sage topography expounds,' &c. &c.

Again,

Again,

- ' Philemon thus from graver tasks withdrew,
And bathed his spirits in poetic dew.'
- ' He falls, but ere his soul to judgment goes,
Attests his guilt with agonizing throes.'
- ' This concord Satan broke; resistless doom
Hurl'd him to sulphur, and tartarean gloom.'

We decline to pursue this ungrateful task, and remove our marks from the second volume, without recording the faults to which they would direct us. With real satisfaction, we quote two passages of sufficient length to shew the abilities of the author when duly exerted, and conclude by assuring our readers that such passages are numerous in both these pleasing though imperfectly finished volumes.

After having mentioned many distinguished characters who have adorned the University of St. Andrew's, the poet adds,

- ' But—lo ! what decent shade before me stands !
His aspect love and reverence commands.
'Tis he !—his name is quiv'ring on the string—
He, who first led me to th' inspiring spring.—
Affection prompts, but Modesty may blame
The verse, a Parent's merit seems to claim.
Nature's best feelings cannot dictate wrong :
Then, let a Father's image grace my song.
' Thrice honour'd name ! next heav'n, I owe to thee
My measure of desert, whate'er it be !
If pure Religion bids my soul aspire
To bliss supreme, and warms me with her fire ;
If soon I hated all that's mean, and base ;
If soon distinguish'd true, from false, disgrace ;
If soon despised the specious fool, or knave,
Revered, in rags, the honest, and the brave ;
If Honour's gen'rous glow my bosom proves ;
If Truth delights me, and if Reason moves ;
If Pity finds it easy to apply
The tones that draw the moisture from my eye ;
If aught of taste, or letter'd sense I share—
All this I owe to thy paternal care.
To ev'ry precept pure example true
Unfolded living Virtue to my view.
When from the path of duty I decline,
Thou stand'st exculpated—the fault is mine.
Should venom'd Malice from thy life collect
Imputed blemish, or confess'd defect,
Her efforts prove that merit which defies
The knave's reproaches, or the sland'rer's lies.
This praise, at least, ev'n Malice must attest ;
—She never found an entrance to thy breast !'

We

We do not know that we can select a better companion for this portrait, than another of the same subject, drawn with equal care and filial affection :

' Ye, too, who haply, in Retirement's shade,
Far from th' unfeeling world, and its parade,
Indulging tender Melancholy's gloom,
Bedew, with tears, some virtuous father's tomb,
Whose honour'd name its lustre shed on you,
While Favour smil'd, and Insolence withdrew,
But, in whose grave, you feel, by cold neglect,
That noon-day friends have buried their respect,
Though still fond Mem'ry's melting eye surveys
His image, and the scenes of better days,
And shall review, till, Life's probation o'er,
In bliss you join him, whom you now deplore !
Ah ! cease the tide of unavailing woe !
Ah ! think for whom your streaming sorrows flow !
For him who wears, triumphant from the fight,
The crown of glory, and the robe of light ;
For him who, free from trouble, doubt, and fear,
Possesses bliss in its unchanging sphere,
And, ev'n in this dank vale, has left behind
A name in ev'ry virtuous heart enshrined.'

A considerable body of illustrative notes forms an useful Appendix.

ART. XI. *Tales of Romance*, with other Poems, including Selections from Propertius. By Charles A. Elton, Author of a Translation of Hesiod. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray, &c. 1840.

In his former choice of a subject for poetry, (the Works and Days, &c. of Hesiod,) Mr. Elton certainly did not consult the taste of the generality of readers, though he might attract the attention of the classical student. We have expressed our opinion of his abilities as a translator, in Rev. Vol. lix, N.S. p. 19, and have now to consider him in the more popular character of an original tale-writer, and modernizer of old Romances.

' These tales,' says Mr. Elton, ' are grounded on the *Gesta Romanorum*, a famous old history-book *, which, in the guise of Roman story, presents us with the manners of chivalry, with monkish legends, and Arabian apologues. The title has, in fact, little or no connection with the narratives themselves ; which are mostly fictitious, even to the names of the Kings and Emperors whose adventures they profess to record. That the fanciful inventions which the Arabians

* The reader is referred to the dissertation of Mr. Warton in the History of English poetry; and that of Mr. Douce in the Illustrations of Shakespeare and ancient manners.'

brought with them into Europe should have obtained credit in a dark age cannot excite wonder ; but it is singular that their influence should have crept into the *sober* annals of *grave* historical tradition. Among the old English metrical Romances of Eastern origin, which constitute a part of Mr. Ellis's interesting series, we find the *Knight and his Greyhound*, a tale precisely similar in its general outline to the *gest* of the *Hound and Falcon*. These have therefore one common origin ; and that the old Welsh tradition relating to Prince Llewellyn and his dog, which forms the subject of Mr. Spencer's* ballad of *Beth Gêlert*, or *the Grave of the Greyhound*, is a scion from the same stock, may be inferred not merely from the Orientalism of the manners, but from that strong internal evidence of originality which is derived from coherent and probable narration, and which, on the slightest comparative view, must appear to rest with the Eastern Romance. It is also singular that the adventure of the Roman slave *Androclus and the Lion*, which is related by Aulus Gellius, finds a counterpart in the *Gesta*. The history may, indeed, have been accommodated to the costume of chivalry ; yet the high and romantic reverence for the qualities of beasts betrays a tincture of Arabian superstition ; and it is remarkable, that the compiler of the *Gesta* has drawn his fable from some other authority than that of Gellius ; this may be *induced*, not from the mere disagreement of the story, but from the circumstance that on other occasions the chronicler follows *Gellius*, and even quotes him. The tale or *Gest* of Robert King of Sicily has been treated at large in an ancient Minstrel Poem, of which Mr. Ellis has given an abstract, with occasional specimens, under the head of *Miscellaneous Romances*. The incident of the *Trumpet of Death* has been borrowed by the Poet Gower.*

Mr. Elton adds that he has not always followed the letter of his originals, but has sometimes added new circumstances, and disposed the materials according to his own fancy.—We have to observe, on the above extract, that Mr. E. has omitted to specify those '*sober* and *grave* annals of historical tradition,' on which the inventions of Eastern Romance have been engrafted ; and although we agree with him in his general remarks as to the originality (the comparative originality, perhaps, we should say,) of Arabian fable, yet it does not thence follow that the compiler of the *Gesta* has sought for other authorities than Grecian or Roman story afforded him, in the fabrication of many of his Romances. For instance :—in the very first tale which Mr. Elton selects, *the Trumpet of Death*, though the particular incident from which it borrows its title be oriental, yet the frame and substance of the story are something more than similar to the hackneyed adventure of Damocles ; and the brother of the Emperor Jovinian is convinced of the cares and dangers of royalty by one expedient at least, identical with that

* See the Metrical Miscellany, 1802.*

which also satisfies Damocles of the unreasonableness of envying the splendour of Dionysius :

“ A pointed spear suspended o’er his head
Still wavering quivers by a single thread.”
Elton’s Trumpet of Death.

—“ *fulgentem gladium è lacunari setâ equinâ appensum demittit jussit, ut impenderet illius beati cervicibus*”—

Cicero, Tuscul. 5.

“ *Districtus ensis cui semper impid
Cervice pendet, non Sicula dapes,*” &c. &c.
Hor. lib. 3. od. 1.

We are surprized that Mr. Elton did not notice these obvious similitudes, since he deems it worth his while to mention those which are remarkable in the story of Androclus and the Lion. We shall now present our readers with one of the most pleasing little tales in the volume ; the incidents of which will also be familiar to the recollection of many :

“ *The Legitimate Son.*”

- Rome’s empress pale on her death-bed lay,
And her lips and forehead were cold as clay ;
“ Oh emperor ! hear—three sons are mine,
But one of the three alone is thine.”
- Eufemian dropp’d the scalding tear,
And his brow was bath’d in the dew of fear ;
“ Thy crime, Theodora, shall pardon gain,
But speak ! that my true-born son may reign.”
- The empress gaz’d with a ghastly eye,
And her bosom heav’d a deep-drawn sigh ;
But a mother’s love was strong in death,
And speechless she yielded up her breath.
- On his death-bed soon Rome’s emperor lay,
And his lips and forehead were cold as clay :
“ Jerusalem’s king shall fill my throne,
Till that my true-born son be known.”
- Jerusalem’s king the mandate gave ;
They raise the corse from its new-made grave ;
With arrows and bows the sons must stand,
And the sceptre shall gift the truest hand.
- The princes the shrouded monarch see
At distance bound to a plantane-tree :
With steady aim the eldest stands, . . .
And the bowstring twangs in his nervous hands.
- In the forehead cold of the breathless corse
The arrow quivers with cleaving force ;

Then forth from the throng the second came,
And wary stood with an archer's aim.

- He drew the bow with rebounding twang,
Through the whistling air the arrow sang ;
As the light'ning swift, that bearded dart
Was lodg'd in the lifeless monarch's heart.
- Jerusalem's king then turn'd to know
Why the youngest prince came loitering slow ;
But with sobs and cries that rent the ear
That youthful prince stood weeping near.
- The darts and bow to his grasp were giv'n,
But his eyes in horror were rais'd to heav'n ;
He trampled the bow and he snapp'd the dart,
" Ah ! shall I pierce my father's heart ? "
- Jerusalem's king from his throne stept down,
On the youngest's brows he plac'd the crown ;
" Untouch'd shall the corse of thy father be
By the hand of his son ; for thou art he ! "

The lovers of romance will meet with several other interesting stories in this small collection : but we must refrain from making farther extracts. The work will probably be placed on the shelves of those who devote any portion of their libraries to such compositions as the *Tales of Wonder*, the *Specimens of Early English Poetry*, *Percey's Reliques*, the *Fabliaux*, &c. &c. &c.—and if this be the case, the author will have no reason to complain of the circulation of his volume.

Mr. Elton, however, should be admonished of a few inaccuracies and feeblenesses of expression, which it would have cost him no trouble to avoid. These are particularly observable in the select Translations from Propertius, which conclude the book. In the Romantic Tales, a greater laxity of phraseology is, perhaps, allowable ; though, we confess, we have no great indulgence for the licences of the ballad-style : but, at all events, in classical versions no such liberties should be permitted. Nothing should there be vulgar, nothing unpoetical in language, without incurring its deserved censure or ridicule.

' Propertius,' observes the author, ' is in some respects confessedly the imitator of Tibullus : yet we are told by Quintilian, that there were not wanting those who preferred the former. Tibullus is more smooth and perspicuous ; more simple and easy in style ; but there is, perhaps, more of vivid reality, of spirit and variety, in Propertius. The softness of his more tender and impassioned pieces is contrasted with a vein of lively sarcasm and cutting satire ; nor is he without that elevation of thought and vigour of expression, which approach to sublimity.'

imity.' The last opinion, we think, is occasionally correct: but, as to contrasting tenderness with sarcasm in the same composition, we conceive it to be one out of many proofs of a bad taste in Propertius; and when we see him compared to Tibullus, we almost lose our patience. Tibullus makes love like an accomplished gentleman; Propertius like a pedantic schoolmaster. As a writer of Love-verses, the soft, the elegant, the fascinating Tibullus is degraded indeed by being compared to the formal, the mythological, and the awkward Propertius. Such we imagine to be their general characters; though we by no means deny the frequent excellence of Propertius as an ingenious, a learned, and a strongly-thinking poet. His 'vivid reality,' as Mr. Elton calls it, we can rarely discover; while truth and nature, we think, eminently belong to his delightful predecessor.

'The following specimens,' continues Mr. E. 'may be considered as marking the progress which I had made towards a complete translation of the Elegies of Propertius, but the experiment has inclined me to doubt its success. It is to be feared that the licentiousness of this poet must for ever exclude him from a complete reception into the class of English Literature*. His style is also frequently encumbered by a mass of mythological allusion; which to a modern reader must inevitably carry an appearance of pedantry. This learned style is judiciously objected to by Mr. Dart, in the preface to his Tibullus †, as abhorrent from the nature of elegy; and the comparative popularity of Tibullus may perhaps be accounted for on these simple grounds. The constant obligation of referring to notes would form a serious impediment to the reader's facility, and consequently to his pleasure. For these reasons a selection from Propertius appears to be the only effectual method of awakening a sensibility to his merits.'

We agree with Mr. Elton on this head, and certainly never wish to see a complete version of this author. Of the first book, under the title of *Monobiblos*, or *Cynthia*, we are already in possession; and detached elegies have been presented to us by various hands. Others, perhaps, might yet be selected: but the majority even of those which Mr. Elton has rendered, we confess, appear uninteresting; and, as we premised, the trans-

* Unfortunately for the cause of classical translation, this remark is almost equally applicable to all the antients when writing on amorous subjects; and omission and alteration are duties of a translator, not so easy as they are indispensable. *Rev.*

† In this now forgotten translation are some good lines, as witness the following couplet: El. 7. b. 1.

"Or with her finger-talk her plots disguise,
Or cheat thee with the silent speech of eyes."

lished under the authority of the whole body, is the production of a few, constituting a Committee; and in course, from this circumstance, the scientific physician will be more moderate in his expectations, and will experience less mortification on a perusal of the work which is the subject of the pamphlet before us.

We must premise that Dr. Bostock confines himself in his remarks to one department, namely the new *Nomenclature* of the last London Dispensatory. When we reviewed that publication in our Number for April 1810, we found occasion to make a variety of strictures on the execution of this department of it; and while we perceive with satisfaction the coincidence of Dr. Bostock's opinions with our own, this similarity will perhaps lead in some degree to a repetition of our former observations, in reporting those of Dr. B., for which we request the reader's indulgence. We cannot, without incurring this risque, do full justice to the present tract. It will be readily allowed that, as many of the apothecaries and vendors of medicines will not take the trouble of becoming acquainted with new names, numerous mistakes must be committed. Yet the college-committee have no doubt judged that the advantages of the neology afford ample compensation. As Dr. B. observes, however, these advantages are but obscurely represented. We are told that 'the new names are legitimate, and according to the nature of the things denoted,' that they are 'according to strict reason and concinnity,' and that 'the names are such as are imposed by the highest authors of systems of chemistry and natural history.' New titles are also given to *measures of liquids*, for which no reason is assigned, nor any authority exists but the will of the college.

Now Dr. Bostock endeavours to shew, and, we think, successfully, — 1. That the nomenclature has not been chosen with uniformity, but consists of denominations belonging partly to former and partly to modern systems of chemistry and natural history, and some which are used in a new sense according to the determination of the college. — 2. That the neologists, in many instances, have not employed the appellations to denote the same things that they import in the systems from which they are taken. — 3. That even where the designations are appropriately applied according to system, the former names generally answered every purpose in practice, as well as the new, without the evils arising from the change. — 4. That the reform ought to have been restricted to the expulsion of titles of decidedly erroneous meaning, and the introduction of those of indubitable true import, or even sometimes for the sake of brevity. To justify these assertions, the author remarks that,

although

although both the British colleges profess the same principle of procedure, yet the fact is 'that, out of between 220 and 230 articles of the Materia Medica, the greatest part of which are the same in both, there are but 27 to which exactly the same denomination is applied by the two colleges.' As to *permanency*, considering the frequent changes in the late editions of the two colleges in the space of a few years, we cannot deem it very probable that the terms will remain constant; and indeed the fluctuations in the theories of chemistry, arising from new facts and the discoveries in natural history, must preclude all hope of permanency. How unfortunate is the new term, *Oxymurias Hydrargyri*!! —The term *dephlogisticated*, to signify the metals in their state of oxids or calces, is less glaringly against the truth. In short, here is a term denoting the presence of that which is *not* present; viz. *Oxygen*, according to a host of evidence produced by Dr. Davy. The London, Dublin, and Edinburgh colleges, sometimes use three different appellations for the same article. Dr. B. remarks that nearly one-third of the preparations of the Materia Medica are designated by the *generic* instead of the *specific* name, and he gives several examples, of which some have been stated by us in the article already cited. In other instances, the name of a species is employed to denominate the article which is afforded by several species differently named. The name of the plant from which a substance is derived is in some cases not retained, though it is as well known as in other instances in which it is inserted. This remark applies to Gum Ammoniac. —Ten articles are Gum Resins; yet the term Gum Resin is affixed to two of them only, the rest being named from the plant which affords them. Why should *arugo* remain, if the article be, according to its composition, a *subacetate*? Although some changes are made without any advantage, seemingly from love of innovation, as *Gambogia* for *Cambodia*, and *Columba* for *Calumba*, in others we find a classical improvement, as in writing the terminations in *as*, according to the feminine gender, e. g. *Soda Subcarbonas exsiccata*. The potash of commerce is unjustly termed a *carbonate*; it is certainly a *subcarbonate*, but in an impure state. *Borax* should have been denominated *Sub-borate* and not *Borate*. The name *Pulvis Antimonialis* belongs to no system: but its chemical composition has been demonstrated to be the same as that of James's Powder, and it ought to have received a designation accordingly. In fine, the greater part of the metallic preparations are either erroneously named according to their composition, or mere arbitrary names are given.

Dr. B.'s criticisms are uncommonly just on the names of the more complex and vegetable compositions. Here the committee have not proceeded according to any established laws, but have acted in a very capricious, incorrect, and unscientific manner. The word *compositus*, so often applied as an adjunct, is quite indefinite and unscientific. The useful rule of naming according to the more efficacious ingredients has been neglected; and names have been given that are frequently of erroneous import, or at least are liable to mislead. Who would not suppose that *Decoctum Aloes* was merely a decoction of Aloes, and that *Pilula Hydrargyri Submuriatis* was a pill of merely Submuriate of Mercury? Yet the former contains but two scruples of Aloes in a pint of liquid, which consists also of a large proportion of five other ingredients; and the latter contains, besides the Submuriate, sulphuret of Antimony and the Gum-Resin Guaiacum. Dr. B. judiciously suggests that the names of these compounds should be selected according to some principal effect on the human body in some cases, and in others he liberally proposes to retain the name of the inventor; e.g. *Dover's Powder*, instead of *Compound Powder of Ipecacuanha*. We may not perhaps, however, agree with the author in all his criticisms. We do not see the justice of objecting to *Sulphate of copper* on the ground of its containing 'excess of acid,' a matter which is quite arbitrary; and perhaps the supposed fact is unproved. What are we to understand by Dr. B.'s saying that *Hydrargyri Oxidum Cinereum* is an unknown composition, and is supposed to be a mixture of the subnitrate of Mercury and Ammoniac? No composition appears more plain. It is produced by decomposing submuriate of Mercury with lime-water. Where, then, does the Doctor find the subnitrate and Ammonia?

The general conclusion of the pamphlet is 'that the attempt of the London college to reform the language of their Pharmacopœia, and to assimilate it to that of Natural History and Chemistry, is no less imperfect than that of the Edinburgh college; and that the practice of Pharmacy will be involved in much difficulty, from the confusion attendant on so extensive a change.' Dr. B. however thinks that 'in England, where the London college has so little authority over either the actions or the opinions of the great body of the profession, their publication will be little attended to, and will produce little change in the language of the great bulk of medical prescriptions.'

ART. XIII. *Dr. Rees's New Cyclopædia.*

[Article continued from Vol. 53. p. 408—421.]

CYCLOPÆDIAS are intended to embrace the whole circle of human knowlege, and in some degree to stand in the stead of other books, but not to render them useless; although, indeed, we have heard of a ridiculous madman, who, on the purchase of a work like the present, projected a bonfire of the rest of his library. From the very nature of their plan, however, they labour under several inconveniences. On any particular branch of natural history or science, they will probably, after their utmost extension, furnish less satisfactory and consistent information than a distinct treatise on that art or science would convey. It is even probable that all the articles belonging to the same subject will not be executed by the same hand; and it is unreasonable to expect that the general supervisor of the whole work will have sufficient leisure to reconcile, by his own act, every inconsistency and discordance. Nor can it be imagined that the writer of an article in a Cyclopædia will be as careful, scrupulous, and jealous of reputation, as he would be if he were employed on a work to which his own name was to be prefixed. From the nature of his engagement, too, he cannot be very anxious to avoid repetitions, and to prune redundancies, but must also have a natural bias towards large extracts. This last seems to be the great evil of Cyclopædias; and the writers in some of them *is/* say large pieces, without even mentioning whence they obtained the materials.

On the other hand, Cyclopædias possess considerable advantages. We can mention scarcely any subject, except classical literature, on which they do not contain information. The circle of the arts and sciences has long belonged to them; and of late they have departed somewhat from their original destination, and have enlarged their property by introducing large masses of history and biography. The possessor of such a work as the present may, if he please, know a little of every thing; the means are within his power; and the resources to which he may apply are neither scanty nor of low quality: for, if the contributors select, they in general select from the best books, and give the latest and best improvements, of art as it is practised, and of science as it is taught; and if their pages are not brilliant with new inventions, still are they not soiled with crude novelties and random speculations.

We have often thought that the conductor of a Cyclopædia would be completely puzzled if he were to attend to the various opinions which are continually given of its nature and limits. "I wonder," says one, "that the Encyclopædists should in-

troduce so much of mathematics into their volumes ; these are best learnt in distinct treatises, and they ill suit the nature of a work which is designed to be popular and for general reading." "Can any thing be more absurd," says another, "than to attempt to describe complicated machinery by a few plates and verbal explanation ! A cotton-machine, a steam-engine, and a weaver's loom, can adequately be understood only by viewing and handling the machines themselves." — "The editor of the *Cyclopædia*," adds a third, "must have been the dupe of his botanical friend, in permitting him to insert those long scientific descriptions of plants. What a pleasant idea it is to seek a plant through fifty quarto volumes ! If you stray into the fields and lanes in search of plants, and wish to be accompanied by your books, you must employ a cart and two horses at least, to drag your library along with you."—"History," says a fourth, "if suffered to be communicated through *Cyclopædias*, will soon be little better than the tales of old men. For the authenticity of the facts, the writer, in his own person, by being unknown, is not responsible ; and by his abstinence from references, he deprives even his readers of appreciating the accuracy of his narration. Without talking of the dignity of history, its use will be entirely lost, if things positive and ascertained are not sedulously separated from matters that rest on doubtful or imperfect evidence. If this rule be not observed, history will stand on the same footing with the Tale of Aladdin's Lamp, or the adventures of Robinson Crusoe."

This representation does not justify the introduction of all subjects indifferently, but shews the difficulties under which the editor of a *Cyclopædia* must labour, if he would attempt to please all tastes.

The present volumes are very full on those subjects which peculiarly belong to them ; that is, arts and manufactures. Persons are not accustomed to purchase treatises on clock-making, dyeing, bleaching, engraving, book-keeping, &c. but, for information on such subjects, naturally resort to a Dictionary. They also go to the same source for an account of astronomical instruments ; which are generally described in some work not easy of access, such as the Transactions of the Royal Society, and the memoirs of foreign academies. There are, indeed, small separate works, which propose to describe astronomical instruments, but they are now rendered nearly useless by late advancements in the art. For instance, nautical sextants are now so much improved, that a new description of them is required ; and of circular instruments, carried to that high perfection which they have now reached in the hands of Troughton, the reader may in vain seek elsewhere. This *Cyclopædia* for a just and ample account. The

The writers in a Cyclopædia, as already observed, are not wholly original authors; which indeed it is neither expected nor is it desirable that they should be. The contributors to the present work furnish no exception in this respect: but they seem to have considered existing publications as funds from which they were intitled to draw; Mess. Laplace and Biot may here read some parts of their treatises on Physical Astronomy in neat English; and Mr. Woodhouse may recognise, in the article *Function*, page after page of his "Principles of Analytical Calculation." These cases, however, furnish no rewards for the discoverers of stolen goods; and therefore we forbear to detect other Plagiarisms: but we must observe, as to Plagiarism, that a writer in this work does not seem inclined to tolerate it. He has drawn his pen against one of the craft who was employed in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the author of the article *Cipher*, who is reported to have given 'merely a long extract from Hooper's *Recreations*, without acknowledgment, or any attempt at improvement.' "*Quis tulerit Gracchos*," &c.—It is but justice, however, to remark that the dissertation on the art of deciphering is, in the present volumes, very curious and interesting. We must add also that, undoubtedly, much original matter is to be found in them; contributed apparently by men who might, without fear, have subscribed their names. The *Encyclopædist*s of France affixed their several private marks or ciphers to their respective articles; and since, as the list of authors employed by Dr. Rees is given on the covers of his volumes, they manifest no repugnance at being known as contributors, surely they might as well have enabled us to identify their shares.

We shall now take a view of the *Chemical* Department.

The article *Acid* was one of the first which attracted our attention; and considering the important agency of the bodies belonging to this class, we expected to have found the subject treated in a very ample manner. We were, however, disappointed; the whole article occupying only about two pages, and affording a very inadequate view of the question. The writer begins by some observations on the definition; in which, after having referred to a hint thrown out by Newton, and afterward adopted by Guyton, "that an acid is a body which attracts strongly and is strongly attracted," he hastily concludes that it is impossible to define this class of bodies. He then proceeds to state that, 'previously to the consideration of the general properties of acids, it will be an advantage to give a sketch of the opinions held by the older chemists, concerning their origin and mode of action, and to examine more at large the theory of Lavoisier upon the same subject.' The plan proposed is highly judicious, but we are obliged to re-
mark

mark that it is very imperfectly executed. The sketch of the opinions of the older chemists is all comprehended in a few lines, and indeed has little pretension to this title; while the theory of Lavoisier, important as it is, and greatly as it influences the whole of our views respecting chemical science, is dispatched in almost as cursory a manner, in about half a page, and consists of little else than the dates of the papers which he successively published on this subject. The article concludes by a list of references, a practice which is generally pursued in this work, and which considerably adds to its value. In the present instance, however, the selection has not been made with much judgement; after having mentioned the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, Lavoisier's Elements, Priestley on Air, and Fourcroy's system, the author concludes with Macquer's Chemical Dictionary and Cullen's *Materia Medica*.

The next article to which we turned was *Adipocire*; and if we objected to the former as being too concise, we must censure this as being too much protracted. Although the two subjects differ so much in their relative degrees of importance, they occupy nearly the same space. We are supplied with a very long abstract from the account which was given by Fourcroy, of the state of the bodies in the Paris burial-ground; and which, though very interesting at the time when it was written, should have been here introduced in a condensed state.

Albumen is a well composed article; the account of its properties is detailed with sufficient accuracy, and a due medium seems to be preserved between the extremes of scantiness and prolixity on which we have taken occasion to animadvert. Some important circumstances, however, are omitted. Mr. Hatchett's valuable experiments on membrane, from which he demonstrated that the substance is principally composed of coagulated albumen, and his discovery that it may be converted by nitric acid into a substance nearly resembling jelly, are of the first importance, and should not have been passed over in silence.

We next perused with much satisfaction the account of *Alum*. It presents first a history of the different substances from which alum is procurable, and afterward details the process by which it is obtained from them, and manufactured into the state in which we usually meet with it. The analysis of the different species of alum is next given, with a history of the successive discoveries which led to our perfect knowledge of its properties and composition. Bergman observed that the acid was always in excess, and that it contained potash, but we are indebted to Vauquelin for a complete view of the subject. The theory

theory of the process by which alum is extracted from the pyritous ore is well understood, and the operation has been long practised in this country : but we believe that the process invented by Chaptal, in which alum is formed by bringing together its constituent parts, has not yet been adopted here, though it has been long known to the chemists. It appears, however, to constitute a salt of greater purity than that which is formed on the other plan, particularly in respect to its being more free from iron ; and we are told that in some processes, especially those in which alum is used in dyeing, the English alum cannot be employed, on account of its impurity. We shall quote the account of Chaptal's process :

‘ An attempt had been made, but with little success, at the manufactory of Javelle near Paris, to prepare alum by the direct combination of its constituent principles ; but it was not till the admirable and decisive experiments, in the large way, by Chaptal, published by him in the genuine spirit of philosophic liberality, that the practicability of this method could be said to be established. According to the modern way of preparing **SULPHURIC ACID**, the requisite proportions of sulphur and nitre being mixed together, are brought to combustion in a closed chamber lined with lead ; the sulphur is thus acidified and converted into vapour, which by degrees unites with the water that overspreads the floor of the chamber, and forms a liquid, diluted, sulphuric acid. A similar process was instituted by Chaptal, only substituting dried clay for the water ; the result of which was so favourable, that a large manufactory on the same plan was set on foot ; which, having continued in full activity for several years, and producing alum only inferior to that of La Tolfa, merits a particular description.

‘ The chamber in which the combustion is performed is 91 feet long, 48 feet wide, and 31 feet in height to the pitch of the roof. The walls are of common masonry, lined with a moderately thick coating of white plaster ; the floor is a pavement of bricks, set in a mortar, composed of baked and unbaked clay ; and this first pavement is covered by a second, in which the bricks are made to overlap the joints of the lower ones, and are themselves firmly connected to each other by a cement, composed of equal parts of pitch, turpentine, and wax, made boiling hot, and poured between the joints instead of mortar. The roof is of wood, and the beams are set at much less distances than common ; they are also channelled with deep longitudinal grooves, for the purpose of receiving the planks that fill up the space between the beams ; so that the whole of this great area of carpentry does not present a single nail. The chamber thus constructed was covered on the sides and top with a layer of the cement just mentioned, applied as hot as possible so as to penetrate into all the pores of the wood and plaster ; three more successive layers were then laid on, and the last was polished so as to present an uniform, even, solid face. In order to prevent the wood-work of the ceiling from warping, it was covered on the outside with a thick coating of cement, and a light roof of tiles was laid over the whole. By substituting this cement for

for a lining of lead, a vast saving was effected in the first expence; and it has been found, by long experience, to require much fewer repairs than even lead itself.

‘ The clay ought to be of the purest kind, such as pipe-clay; that it may contain neither lime nor magnesia, and as little as possible of iron. It is to be tempered with water, and made into balls five or six inches in diameter; these being dried in the sun, are afterwards calcined in a furnace; the first effect of the heat is to blacken them, but soon after they become red hot, the carbopaceous matter which causes the blackness is burnt out. Being thus withdrawn from the fire and cooled, they are broken down into small fragments, and spread on the floor of the chamber. In this state they are exposed to the vapour of sulphuric acid from the combustion of sulphur and nitre; and in a few days the pieces are observed to crack and open, and to be penetrated with slender saline crystals. The earth being at length covered with efflorescences, it is removed from the chamber, and exposed to the air under shelter of a shed, that the acid may obtain its highest degree of oxygenation, and become thoroughly united with the earth. It is now lixiviated, and the liquor contains, in solution, little else than acidulous sulphat of alumine; this being boiled down to the proper consistence, a solution of sulphated potash (being the residue in the pots of combustion from which the sulphuric acid was produced in the chamber, and consisting of the alkaline base of the nitre combined with some of the sulphuric acid) is poured in, and the liquor being then transferred into a large vat, perfect crystals of alum are shortly deposited, which are afterwards refined in the usual manner.

‘ The advantages of this process are numerous. It may be carried on whenever a supply of proper clay can be had. The space taken up by the works is much less extensive than what is required according to the common methods. The whole manufacture is performed in at most one-third of the time usually necessary. A large quantity of fuel is saved. The extraneous salts in the mother-water are fewer; an important use is made of the residual sulphat of potash; and lastly, the alum itself is much purer, and almost equally well adapted to fix the delicate dyes as that of La Tolfa, the commercial price of which is generally about double that of the English alum.’

Antimony is also a well written article. It commences by an account of the different ores of this metal; after which we have some good observations on the method of analyzing them, principally taken from Klaproth.

‘ § 2. *Assay and Analysis of Antimonial Ores.*

‘ All the antimonial ores are easily reducible before the blowpipe on charcoal; and by a continuation of the heat, they exhale a dense smoke of a white or yellowish colour, with little or no arsenical odour, and deposit yellowish flowers, or white needleform crystals, on the surface of the charcoal: these appearances are, however, liable to considerable modification on account of the variable proportion of lead, arsenic, sulphur, &c. that are usually mixed with the antimony. A more certain, therefore, though not so expeditious a method of ascertaining

ascertaining the presence of this metal, is to reduce 200 grains of the ore to fine powder, and digest it in a moderately diluted nitro-muriatic acid, in which the nitrous is not more than one-third of the muriatic part. The clear liquor, after slow digestion for an hour, is to be decanted and reduced by evaporation to about half its bulk, and then poured into a large quantity of distilled water: a copious white precipitate immediately takes place of antimonial oxyd, which whenedulcorated and mixed with an equal weight of crude tartar, is to be put into a small lined crucible fitted with a cover, and by a moderate red heat the oxyd will be reduced into a metallic button.

‘ The analysis of antimonial ores presents no particular difficulties, except such as are common to all minerals in which arsenic enters. The following are the substances which have been found mixed with antimony, *viz.* iron, silver, lead, copper, arsenic, and sulphur; to which must be added, silix and alumine, as composing the stony gangue, which cannot always be entirely separated previous to analysis.

‘ (a) Let 560 grains of the ore be reduced in an agate mortar to an impalpable powder, and afterwards mixed in a flask with 1500 grs. of pure nitrous acid of sp. gr. 1.25, and 1000 grs. of distilled water; digest the mixture at a temperature considerably less than boiling, for an hour, then pour off the clear liquor, and add nitrous acid equal to half the quantity first used; digest this for a few minutes, and add by degrees, during the remainder of the digestion, half as much distilled water as acid; then pour off the clear liquor, and wash the residue with distilled water.

(b) Add together the two nitrous solutions and the washings and drop in a saturated solution of muriated soda as long as any precipitate takes place, and allow it to stand for a few hours; pour off the liquor, and boil the precipitate in a little distilled water; filter andedulcorate. Add the washings to the liquor.

‘ (c) The precipitate (b), consisting of muriated silver, and probably a little arsenic, being dried in a heat just inferior to its fusion, is to be weighed, and reduced in a small crucible by twice its weight of pearlsh: 75 parts of silver denote 100 of muriated silver, and if the produce of metal is less than that obtained by calculation, the deficiency may be set down as arsenic.

‘ (d) The nitrous solution (b), containing a great excess of acid, is to be reduced to only a slight excess by the addition of potash or soda; and is then to be treated with nitrated barytes for sulphuric acid: the sulphat of barytes thus produced, contains the sulphur of the ore oxygenated by the nitrous acid. This being separated, add a saturated solution of sulphated soda, as long as any precipitation takes place. This is sulphated lead.

‘ (e) The residue of solution (d), being evaporated to dryness, is to be mixed with soap, and heated in a subliming flask, the arsenic will thus be obtained in a metallic state.

‘ (f) Upon the insoluble residue (a) digest two or three ounces of nitro-muriatic acid, composed of nitrous acid 1, muriatic acid 5, water 3. By this the antimony, iron, and copper will be dissolved, together with a little alumine and silix. Separate this from the undissolved

dissolved residue, and pour the liquor into three or four times its quantity of distilled water, and the oxyd of antimony will be precipitated. Separate this by filtration, wash, and add the washings to the other liquor; 130 parts of oxyd of antimony well dried denote 100 of metal.

‘(g) Evaporate the fluid (f) to a small bulk, and supersaturate it with caustic ammoniac, the iron and earths will be precipitated, and the copper will be held in solution, giving it a blue colour. Separate the precipitate by a filter; and add sulphuric acid to the ammoniacal liquor till it becomes acidulous, then precipitate the copper by a bar of clean iron.

‘(b) The precipitate (g) being digested with a little caustic potash, the silex and alumine will dissolve, leaving the oxyd of iron behind.

‘(i) The undissolved residue of (f) being dried and weighed, is to be ignited to drive off the sulphur, the quantity of which is denoted by the loss of weight after ignition. What remains is earth and a few atoms of metallic oxyd, which being fused with black flux, will reduce the oxyd, and render the earths soluble in water.

‘(k) The sulphated lead (d) is to be reduced by fusion with tartar, and the oxyd of antimony also by the same method: being then weighed separately, as much pure lead is to be added as will make the lead twice the weight of the antimony. The metals being melted together are to be divided into two equal parts, and subjected to cupellation; if any silver remains, its amount is to be added to that of (c). Bergman’s Ess. Klaproth’s Analytical Essays. Kirwan’s Mineralog. vol. ii.’

The characters of the metal, when obtained in a state of purity, are given at full length; and then follow separate sections containing a description of its oxids, the action of acids on it, its sulphurets and phosphurets, and its alloys. A rather copious account is given of the pharmaceutical preparations of antimony, and some report of its medical virtues. We may observe, *en passant*, that the writer, when speaking of the sulphurets of antimony, erroneously names M. Thenard, calling him *Thenars*.

It is in our power to bestow the same commendation on the article *Arsenic* which we offered to that of Antimony. The most important facts that have been discovered, respecting the natural and chemical history of this substance, are accurately detailed and well arranged. An account of the ores of arsenic, their analysis and reduction, the characters of the regulus, the salts which it forms, the products of its union with oxygen, and its effects on the body, successively pass under review, forming each the subject of a distinct section. The directions given for detecting small quantities of arsenic, where it has been suspected to have been taken as a poison, are sufficiently interesting to be laid at full length before our readers:

‘The medical chemist is sometimes called upon by the magistrate to ascertain the presence or absence of arsenic in the stomach of per-

sons who have died with some of the violent symptoms which warrant a suspicion of this nature, countenanced by appearances on dissection. The presence of arsenic, in substance, in the stomach, is thus ascertained: first, make a ligature round the lower part of the œsophagus, and another at the pylorus, to prevent any of the contents of the stomach from spilling; then take out this organ, empty its contents in a bason, and rinse the inner surface with a little cold water, which add to the other contents. As white arsenic, in substance, is generally that which is found after death by this poison, it will be seen in the form of a heavy white powder, from which the slime, and other contents of the stomach, may be washed off by repeated affusions of cold water, which washings, however, should not be thrown away, but added to the liquid contents. Then let the powder be submitted to the following experiments: boil a portion of it in a Florence flask, in a few ounces of distilled water, and filter the liquid solution; add to a part of the clear liquid some water saturated with sulphurated hydrogen gas, or a few drops of sulphuret of ammonia, and if arsenic be present, a golden yellow sediment will fall down, which will appear sooner if a few drops of acetic acid be added; add to another portion of the solution a single drop of a weak solution of carbonate of potash, and afterwards a solution of sulphate of copper, when the arsenic will be indicated by a yellowish green precipitate, similar to that which is known in chemistry by the name of *Scheele's green*; collect the sediments and dry them, or if there is any of the powder to spare, take a portion of this, lay it upon red hot charcoal, when it will be entirely dissipated in a white dense vapour, having the garlic smell peculiar to arsenic.

‘But a portion of the white powder suspected to be arsenic should be reduced to the metallic state, which may be done in the following neat manner, proposed by Dr. Black; mix it with two parts of dry carbonate of potash, and one of powdered charcoal; procure a tube eight or nine inches long, and one-sixth of an inch in diameter, of thin glass sealed hermetically at one end; coat the closed end with clay for about an inch, and let the coating dry; then put into the tube the mixture of the powder and the flux, and if any of it should adhere to the inner surface, let it be brushed down by a feather; stop the open end of the tube loosely with a cork, and gradually heat the sealed end only, on a chafing dish of hot charcoal. The arsenic, if present, will then rise to the upper part of the tube, on the inner surface of which it will form a thin, brilliant, metallic coating, whilst a portion will escape in garlic-smelling fumes. When nothing more rises from the heated end, brake the tube, and scrape off the metallic crust formed on the upper part. Of this, lay a part on heated iron, when it will totally exhale in a dense smoke, with the peculiar arsenical smell; put another part between two polished pieces of copper (halfpence, for example, rubbed quite bright), bind them together with wire, and expose them slowly to a low red heat; if the enclosed substance is arsenic, it will leave a white stain on the copper.

‘If it should happen that no white powder is found in the stomach, the liquid contents when filtered along with the washings, should be evaporated to dryness, and the residue examined in the same manner as the

the white powder, but this would be a work of greater difficulty on account of the casual mixture with the other contents of the stomach.

‘ By these means the presence of arsenic, even in very small quantity, may be detected by any one tolerably versed in chemical experiments; but for greater security it may be advisable to perform separate and parallel experiments with the white arsenic of the shops, and compare the results and appearances.

We have felt much disappointed from the perusal of the account of *Caloric*, which is ill written in point of style, and contains but a very meagre sketch of the interesting matter which we had expected to find. Count Rumford's experiments on the immateriality of heat are noticed, and an attempt is made to answer them: but almost all the other properties of this agent, the great variety of hypotheses which have been formed respecting it, and the discussions to which it has given rise, are either passed without notice, or are referred to other articles, in an abrupt manner. For an account of the effects of caloric, we are directed to the article *Heat*, and to *Heat* we are likewise sent for a description of the Calorimeter. As a specimen of the *philosophy* of this article, we quote the following paragraph:

‘ Several writers on this subject appear to us to have involved it in no inconsiderable degree of obscurity, by an unwarrantable distinction between *latent* and *free* or *sensible* caloric. There seems to be no such distinction in nature: caloric is always sensible and never latent. The proportion of it in any body is always sufficiently indicated either by its temperature or its state with regard to the counterpoise of those attractive and repulsive powers of which we have been speaking, and no change can take place in that proportion without its occasioning a concomitant change in one or the other of these affections.’

To complete the character of this portion of the work, we must observe that it is farther deficient in not having any references attached to it.

The next article which we shall notice is *Carbonic acid*. This, although it contains much useful information, and is not ill written, we cannot but consider as giving an imperfect view of the substance of which it proposes to treat. We expected, in course, to have had some account of its natural history, of the different hypotheses which have been formed respecting it, of the experiments of Dr. Black, and lastly, of the discovery of its composition by Lavoisier. The last of these points only is mentioned, and but cursorily.—This article, like the preceding, is not furnished with any references.

The subject of *Crystallization* is treated in a satisfactory and judicious manner. The author begins by defining the term, and by pointing out the difference between crystallization and simple

simple aggregation. While the last applies equally to every solid body, the former is applicable to those only which have 'a regular arrangement of homogeneous integrant particles.' This circumstance leads us to the distinction between elementary and integrant particles.

'All compound bodies may be considered as made up of *integrant* particles, each of which is again composed of *elementary* ones. Thus a mass of common salt consists of a vast multitude of little cubes, which are its integrant particles, each of which is resolvable into muriatic acid and soda, which are its elementary ones. With the latter of these crystallization has nothing to do, nor is it possible to ascertain their forms, since they are not decomposable by means which have any relation to form. Thus, when a piece of common salt is pounded in a mortar, the concussions that it receives are continually destroying the adhesion between its integrant particles; and though it is incapable of being actually and completely resolved, on account of the comparative coarseness of the instruments that we are obliged to make use of, yet we see an evident approximation to this. Now a body, that is mechanically divisible, must be produced by the adhesion or aggregation of its constituent particles, and these, both with regard to their forms and the manner in which they adhere to each other, are proper objects of measurement and mathematical calculation. The case, however, is widely different with regard to the elementary particles of which the integrant molecule are composed; these are incapable of being in the smallest degree separated by percussion or mechanical force, and therefore the mode of their combination is not capable of being explained by geometrical calculation.'

Practical directions are given for procuring crystals of the largest and most perfect form, and afterward an historical detail of the progress which has been successively made in this department of science; first by Linné, then by Rome de Lisle, and lastly by Haüy, of whose ingenious system we find a perspicuous abstract.

We have already spoken favourably of some articles on metallic bodies, and we shall extend this commendation to the account of gold. It exhibits a good specimen of that kind of information which may be expected in a work that professes to be scientific, but yet, in a certain sense, to be adapted for general use. The mineralogical description of the ore, its geographical situation, the extraction of the metal, its chemical properties, its salts, its alloys, and lastly its physical properties, are all detailed briefly, but with a due degree of accuracy.

From the view which we have now taken of the chemical part of this Cyclopædia, our readers will probably be led to form one conclusion, which has forcibly impressed our minds, that the articles are of very different degrees of merit, and cannot all be written by the same hand. Unfortunately, some of those which are of the most general interest, such as embrace the

grand doctrines that are illustrative of the philosophy of chemistry, are the least commendable, and are indeed in some cases extremely defective; whereas many of the details on particular subjects, such as the description of different earths, metals, &c. are deserving of high praise. We think that the articles in the latter volumes are considerably superior to those which occur in the former part of the work.

The 1st part of the XVIIIth volume of this dictionary has appeared: but our preceding survey has not extended through all the portions which have been published. In casually turning them over, however, our attention was drawn to a leading article in one of the most recent numbers, which we must confess has excited not only our surprize but our disapprobation. Calculated as the work is for general circulation, and pressed (not unsuccessfully, we believe,) into such circulation, by all the industry and ingenuity of the modern art of publishing, we cannot imagine how the reverend and amiable editor could deem it consistent with the interests of that morality which it has been the business of his life to inculcate and to exemplify, to throw on the table of the reading-room and the parlour a physiological investigation, of which the minuteness could be required by so few readers, and is so extremely improper for so many. We would ask Dr. Rees whether he would permit his young wife (if he should be so adventurous as to take one), or a young daughter, or a young sister, to peruse the article to which we refer? It could not, we think, be indispensable, even in so comprehensive a production as this is, to enter into the discussion of points which scarcely even professional men are required to know: but if the *insertion* of the matter is to be supported on this ground, we can foresee no answer to the remaining question, "Why was not the whole written in Latin?"—as parts of it are. It has been common with anatomists to adopt this language for their researches; and the author might have recollected the precaution of Dr. Taylor, of Norwich, in his Treatise on Original Sin, who, having occasion collaterally to introduce a topic of this nature, expressed himself in Latin: adding, "*Hoc latinitate donavi, ut castis auribus parcerem*:" or the more recent example of Gibbon, who, indulging himself certainly without excuse in details that were not fit for him to write nor for others to read, had at least the decorum to "veil them in the obscurity of a learned language." We hope that Dr. Rees will consider the subject in this point of view, when the plates which will illustrate the obnoxious article are constructed.

With regard to the engravings, generally, we have before spoken more than once. We think that they improve in beauty; and those belonging to the arts, which are executed by Lowry, are particularly

particularly good. In this point, it appears to us, the present is eminent above all other books of the same nature.

ART. XIV. *Letters on various Subjects, literary, political, and ecclesiastical, to and from William Nicolson, D.D.* successively Bishop of Carlisle, and of Derry; and Archbishop of Cashell; including the Correspondence of several eminent Prelates, from 1683 to 1726-7 inclusive. Faithfully printed from the Originals; and illustrated with literary and historical Anecdotes, by John Nichols, F.S.A.E. & P. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 656. 16s. Boards. Nichols and Son. Longman and Co. 1810.

WE have often had occasion to observe, that scarcely any department of the library is in more danger of being overstocked, than that which is appropriated to publications compiled from private correspondence. When persons of any celebrity die, their drawers and cabinets are ransacked for letters; and even the honour of the deceased and the duties of friendship are disregarded, when the temptation of making money by the sale of the MSS. presents itself. The instance before us, however, is an exception to the ordinary mode of proceeding in similar cases. It appears that the letters, constituting the correspondence of Bishop Nicolson, were preserved with great care by that learned prelate, and that at his decease they fell into the hands of the Rev. Edward Marshall, M. A. formerly of Clare-hall, Cambridge, who for several years was librarian to the Duke of Devonshire, and late in life obtained the vicarage of Duxford in Yorkshire. This clergyman, it is added, intended to have published them, but died before he could thoroughly satisfy his mind on the subject, March 28, 1807, at the age of 86. Mr. Nichols, the present editor, purchased them in 1808, at the sale of Mr. Marshall's library, and determined to offer them to the public without delay. While we thank him for this acceptable present, we must do him the justice of reporting that he has not performed his task in a hasty and slovenly manner. On the contrary, he has laboured to render these volumes complete by numerous biographical notices, which materially illustrate the correspondence, and by brief memoirs of Dr. Nicolson's life. The epistolary intercourse here exhibited occupies a space of between forty and fifty years, in a very interesting period of our history, displays the literary talents of Archbishop N., and includes the letters of a long list of illustrious and learned men, who were his contemporaries and intimates; viz. Archbishops Sharp, Dawes, Wake, Blackburn, and Boulter; Bishops Gibson, Kennett, Atterbury, Stratford, Robinson, Talbot, Tanner,

and Downes; Messrs. Mander, Wallis, Evelyn, Hickes, Charlett, Todd, Burscough, Pearson, Smith, Thoresby, Lhwyd, Wharton, Morton, Woodward, Twaites, Wilkins, Chamberlayne, Madox, &c. &c. When these names first occur, a brief memoir is subjoined in a note at the bottom of the page, and the pleasure of the reader is much increased by these useful addenda. The letters are, for the most part, rather grave than sprightly: if we except those of Bishop Downes, at the end of the second volume, which display much good humour and pleasantry. If, however, the generality do not belong to the class of light reading, they will illustrate the state of politics and of ecclesiastical affairs in the period to which they relate, and particularly will 'develope some of the secret springs of promotion in Ireland, (as the Editor observes,) during the latter part of the reign of George I., as those of Dr. Wilkins had previously done for a somewhat earlier period in England.'

In the brief memoirs which introduce this collection, it is stated that

'William Nicolson, son of the Rev. Joseph Nicolson, formerly of Queen's College, Oxford, and Rector of Orton near Carlisle, was born at that village in 1655. He was both paternally and maternally of Cumberland extraction. His father was son and heir of Joseph Nicolson, of Avers Holme in that county, gentleman, by his wife Radigunda Scott, heiress to an estate at Park Broom, in the parish of Stanwix; which estate descended to Catherine, eldest surviving daughter of Archbishop Nicolson. His mother was Mary daughter of John Brisco, of Crofton, Esq.

'In 1670, at the age of 15, Mr. Nicolson was entered at Queen's college; and in 1678 was sent by Sir Joseph Williamson, then Secretary of State, to Leipsic, in order to get acquainted with the High Dutch and other Septentrional languages. There he translated an Essay of Mr. Hook's, towards a proof of the motion of the Earth from the Sun's parallax, out of English into Latin, which was there printed by the Professor who had recommended the task.

'July 23, 1679, he, after a short tour into France, completed his degree of M. A.; and, in the same year, was elected and admitted Fellow of Queen's College; and was ordained Deacon Dec. 28.

'In 1680, he published an account of the state of the kingdoms of Poland, Denmark, and Norway, as also of Iceland, in the first volume of the English Atlas; whereof he afterwards composed the second and third volumes (treating of the Empire of Germany) without any assistance. The same year he was sent by the Vice-chancellor to wait on George Lewis Prince of Brunswick-Hanover, at Tetsworth, in his way to the University, where the next day His Highness was complimented with the degree of a Doctor in the Civil Law.

'Sept. 5, 1681, he was ordained priest; and was in that year collated by Bishop Rainbow to a vacant prebend in the Cathedral Church
of

of Carlisle, and also to the vicarage of Torpenhow; and in the year following to the Archdeaconry of Carlisle, vacant by the resignation of Mr. Thomas Musgrave.

' In 1685 he wrote a letter to Mr. Obadiah Walker, Master of University College, concerning a Runic inscription at Bewcastle in Cumberland, printed in the Philosophical Transactions, No. 178; and likewise a letter to Sir William Dugdale, concerning a Runic inscription on the font in the church of Bridekirk, dated at Carlisle, Nov. 23, 1685, and printed in the same number of the Transactions.

' Dr. Hickee mentions his assistance in the *Thesaurus*, tom. i. pref. p. iv. "*Qui plurima à nobis in difficilibus & obscuris, tanquam oraculum planè consultus, semper ad nos responsa lucis plena, quibus omnia explicabat, summâ cum humanitate, & sine morâ dedit.*"

' In 1696, he published the first part of his *English Historical Library*. The next year he published the second part; and in 1699, the third and last part. In 1702 he published one for Scotland; as he did likewise one for Ireland in 1724.

' Mr. Atterbury having reflected on some parts of the "*English Historical Library*, particularly relating to *Convocations*," our Archdeacon vindicated himself in a Letter to Dr. Kennett.

' In 1702, on the eve of Ascension-day, he was elected Bishop of Carlisle; confirmed June 3, and consecrated June 14, at Lambeth; which promotion was obtained by the interest of the house of Edenhall.

' Sept. 15, 1704, Dr. Francis Atterbury waited upon Bishop Nicolson at Rose, for institution to the deanry of Carlisle. But, the letters patent being directed to the Chapter, and not to the Bishop; and the date thereof being July 15, though the late Dean (Grahme) did not resign till the 5th of August; and moreover, some dispute arising about the Regal Supremacy; institution was then refused: but the Bishop declared, at the same time, that the affair should be laid forthwith before the Queen: and that if Her Majesty should, notwithstanding these objections, be pleased to repeat her commands for giving Dr. Atterbury possession of the deanry, institution should be given. The Queen was pleased, by her Secretary of State, to intimate her pleasure to the Bishop to institute the Dean; which was instantly obeyed.'

In relating the difference between Nicolson and Atterbury, the Editor has in our judgment manifested a little partiality. It is very obvious, merely on the evidence of these letters, that Bishop Nicolson was actuated by a paltry feeling, unworthy of him, in denying institution to Dr. Atterbury on his being appointed to the deanry of Carlisle. In his controversy also with Atterbury, much acrimony is apparent, very coarse language is employed, and the refusal of institution was mean, impotent spite; because he must have known that the Queen would enforce her own appointment. So much was he irritated by his literary warfare with Atterbury, that he was weak enough to withhold from him the title of *Dr.*, which the Uni-

versity of Oxford had conferred, calling him *Mr. Atterbury*: this offence induced the University afterward to take a revenge equally mean, and when Nicolson applied for his degree of D.D. they refused him; so that he was obliged to seek that honour from Cambridge. At this period, party-spirit ran high; and when such is the case, great men will condescend to stoop to mean and dirty measures.—But to pursue the notices relative to Bishop N. :

‘ In 1709 the Bishop was elected F.R.S.; and published his “*Leges Marchiarum, or Border Laws*; with a Preface, and an Appendix of Charters and Records relating thereto.”

‘ In 1707, Dr. Atterbury the Dean being never at rest, and continually raising fresh disputes with his Chapter; the Bishop endeavoured to appease them, by visiting the Chapter, in pursuance of the power given by the statutes of King Henry VIII. at the foundation of the corporation of Dean and Chapter. But Dr. Todd, one of the Prebendaries, was instigated by the Dean to protest against such visitation; insisting upon the invalidity of King Henry the Eighth's statutes; and that the Queen, and not the Bishop, was the local visitor. During the course of the visitation, the Bishop suspended, and afterwards excommunicated Dr. Todd: whereupon the Doctor moved the Court of Common Pleas for a prohibition, and obtained it unless cause shewn. In the mean time these proceedings alarmed the whole prelacy; and the Archbishop of Canterbury wrote a circular letter on the subject to all his suffragans: and very soon afterwards a bill was carried into parliament, and passed into a law, which took away those doubts, by establishing the validity of the local statutes given by King Henry VIII. to his new foundations.

‘ In 1713, he wrote an Essay, or Discourse, to be affixed to Mr. Chamberlayne's book, containing the Lord's Prayer in one hundred different languages; which is most justly appreciated by Dr. Hicckes.

‘ By King George the First he was, in 1715, appointed Lord High Almoner; an office which was resigned in his favour by his friend Archbishop Wake.

‘ In 1717, a collection of papers scattered about the town in the “*Daily Courant*,” and other periodical papers, with some remarks addressed to Bishop Hoadly, were published by Bp. Nicolson in an octavo volume.

‘ On the 17th of March 1717-18, our excellent Prelate was nominated to the bishopric of Derry in Ireland; but was allowed to continue Bishop of Carlisle and Lord Almoner till after Easter. He was consecrated Bishop of Derry, May 2.

‘ In the following year he wrote a Preface to the third edition of Dr. Wilkins's “*Leges Anglo-Saxonicae*.”

‘ He published seven single Sermons.

‘ On the 9th of February 1726-7, he was translated to the Archbishopric of Cashel; but died, suddenly, on the 14th of that month; and was buried in the Cathedral of Derry, without any monumental inscription.

The number of letters in this collection is 322, and the subjects of them are very various. At the commencement of the series, we perceive the ardor of Nicolson as a Whig, and a friend of the Revolution; and as we proceed, we contemplate the rewards which he obtained in the Church for his attachment to King William and the House of Brunswick. In the early part of William's reign, many persons were dissatisfied with a king *de facto*, and refused to take the oath of allegiance; Nicolson, therefore, when he was Archdeacon of Carlisle, wrote and sent a temperate and sensible letter through the archdeaconry, to infuse into the minds of his clergy the principles of loyalty to the new sovereigns: which, we doubt not, had considerable effect in removing the scruples of good men. The letter is inserted in these volumes, and we had designed to quote it, but find it too long.

Before Archdeacon N. was decorated with the mitre, and occupied by ecclesiastical ambition, together with the cares which accompany it, he was an ardent naturalist and scholar. He tells Mr. Lhwyd that he 'took pains to climb a *deal* of our hills in quest of alpine plants;' and in another place he writes, like a true antiquary, of 'a *ravishing* runic monument.' His letters to Dr. Woodward discuss the theory of the earth, with the hypotheses then invented to explain the deluge; and the Archdeacon inclines to the belief that 'the old vulgar exposition is not to be *stood to*.' Adverting afterward to Dr. Woodward's theory of the deluge, he says:

'I would not offer any thing that might shake the foundations of so fairly promising and hopeful a structure as the Doctor's appears to be. I am clearly for encouraging the ingenious inventors of all new systems, and giving them leave to enjoy the honour, as well as inward satisfaction, of all their pretty opinions. The world is extremely malicious, as well as inconstant; so that neither the empires of monarchs nor philosophers can last for ever. You and I need not trouble ourselves, nor run any hazards, in opposing them in their youth and vigour, whatever we may tacitly think of their principles. This earth of ours was pretty quiet till Copernicus gave it a whirl; and it has never rested since. Tycho's improvements upon that discoverer have had their time; and so have Cartesius's *Vortices*. These last are now displaced by Mr. Newton's gravity; and that, as the author confesses, has its infirmities. Our late refiners upon the Creation and the Deluge are unanimously agreed, that the old interpreters of Moses were all blockheads: and which of them will furnish us with a more rational and lasting exposition, time must shew. Whether Dr. Burnet's roasted egg, Dr. Woodward's hasty-pudding, or Mr. Whiston's snuff of a comet, will carry the day, I cannot foresee. Dr. Arbuthnot has well observed, that a successful theory must be built upon many nice inquiries, and not forwardly advanced on the encouragement of a few likely phenomena.'

With Dr. Hickey and others, he enters into a variety of antiquarian researches: but we must pass over these, as well as the letters which refer to the controversy with Atterbury respecting the rights and powers of the convocation; though we must not omit the sly insinuation which Nicolson throws out against his antagonist, and which probably was retorted, that 'his conscience lies towards that kind of divinity which will *keep a coach and six horses*.' Most ecclesiastics will probably be of opinion that this divinity, riding in state, is preferable to tattered and perambulating divinity.

These letters shew to what an extent honours and preferments in the Church, at the period in question, depended on the party-connections of the day. Dr. Wilkins was refused his degree at Oxford in consequence of party-cabal; and it will be seen by the following letter from Mr. Chamberlayne to Bishop Nicolson, that merit and learning were less slender recommendations to preferment than zealous attachment to the Whig or the Tory interest:

'MY HONOURED LORD,

'Petty France, July 6, 1715.

'The learned Mr. Wilkins has lived a great while upon the hopes of my Lord of Canterbury's * favour to him; and a little while upon the slender commons of my table, to which he is heartily welcome as long as he pleases. But he being sensible how sad a thing it is, *aliud vivere quadrat*; and being almost at the end of his hopes and expectations from my Lord Archbishop; hating an idle life, and allured by his friends in Holland, and much encouraged by Mr. Duijvenvoorde, the States' Ambassador, to fix at Leyden (where there are two or three very old Professors, whose shoes he would have him wait for); I say, upon all these considerations, I fear Mr. Wilkins will be much sooner tired and weary of Petty France, and England too, than I would have him: for I find him very melancholy and much dejected. His heart hankers after his father's country, but he must follow his destiny. It cut him to the heart to be asked, as he was lately by a great man in a sarcastical manner, "*What, have not your Whig friends provided for you?*"

'Every one considers him as a creature of the Archbishop's; and, indeed, he has hitherto made no steps but by His Grace's order. Some of his friends would have had him immediately put on the Gown upon his return from Holland, and as soon as they knew he was in orders; but His Grace was of the contrary opinion; being, perhaps, at that time, not without hopes of putting him into the Bedford family. But the noble Lady that governs there would not hear of a Clergyman for tutor to the young Duke; and, besides, insisted on

* * Dr. Thomas Tenison, who died Dec. 14, 1715, at 79, Mr. Wilkins found a better Patron in the succeeding Primate,

other qualifications, such as the knowledge of the mathematics, &c. ; though, if it be true that she has accepted of an Officer in the Army, perhaps she may wish, in time, she had preferred Mr. Wilkins ; who, I am sure, would have made his illustrious Pupil a good Christian, and a fine Gentleman. But he thinks no more of that ; and therefore allows me to tell your Lordship, and by you the rest of his friends and patrons, viz. my Lords the Bishops of Lincoln *, Norwich †, and Oxford ‡, that if they continue in their kind resolutions of recommending him either to the King or the Archbishop, he will be a *meer tabula rasa*, susceptible of any impressions they please to stamp upon him. If they would have him go abroad or stay at home, fix in Oxford or London, wear a Gown or a Sword, he is ready to follow their directions. All your Lordships know his talents ; and if you would beg for him but a little pension, or a less prebend, he, who values riches just as other Scholars, will be content with whatever you think he ought to accept : and you shall direct his studies as you please ; as he will daily his prayers to God for his Benefactors. Pardon this long letter, my Lord ; and always command your Lordship's most faithful humble servant

‘ JOHN CHAMBERLAYNE.’

It is pleasant to find by the sequel, that this learned man was promoted, honoured, and made comfortable. Many good letters from Dr. Wilkins are to be found in the second volume.

Bishop Downes's letters, which may be termed chatty and friendly, contain various particulars relative to the state of the Protestant church in Ireland. We give a sample :

‘ MY VERY DEAR BROTHER,

‘ Dublin, Sept. 15, 1720.

‘ After the very dismal account I had of your state, under your own hand, before I left this place, upon which I expressed my hearty condolence to you, and prayers to God for you ; it was extremely pleasing to receive a more comfortable account from our common friend and good brother Meath after our arrival at Elphin, and yet later since our return from it. Yesterday morning he entertained me (far better than I could him at dinner that day) by reading me a letter which he received from you, wrote with your usual spirit of courage and cheerfulness, and which spoke not only a sound mind, but body too ; which I pray God long to continue to you, for your own, your friends, and the public good.

‘ I spent about two months in my little hired cabin, which has been fitting up for me in the little town of Elphin, and upon which I have laid out near an hundred pounds ; and must lay out more before it will be fit to receive my family, even in the Summer time. The great shell of the house is in so ruinous a state, that the best use that can

* * Dr. William Wake, soon afterwards Archbishop.

† † Dr. Charles Trimmell,

‡ ‡ Dr. John Potter.’

be made of it is to pull it down, and build a more convenient one in its room ; towards which it will supply me with a great deal of good stone and some timber. But you will advise me to get a little money in my pocket before I put my fingers in mortar.

‘ My Diocese is about seventy Irish miles in length, and yet has not above twenty clergymen in it ; and but one Parsonage-house, and that is the Dean’s at Elphin ; about which, I think, the Papists are more numerous than at Killala, being fifty to one Protestant. But the Gentry are generally Protestants, and very loyal ; and the Clergy are very well ; and both Clergy and Laity very respectful to their Bishop : so that I seldom sat down but at a full table.

‘ We have no news yet how the great posts in the Law will be filled. Mr. Harrison has received the King’s grant to be one of our Commissioners : but when he will come over, or when there will be a Lord Chief Baron here to swear him (if he did come) as the Law requires, I know not. Some say Sir R. Levinz will have the first cushion in the Court of Common Pleas : he himself writes that he does not doubt of it, if my Lord Chief Baron has it not, and some think an higher post is designed for him ; which, I fancy, he by no means covets, but would leap at a lower in England.

‘ South Sea sinks apace ; and its fall is almost as unaccountable as its rise, especially since this happens just after the Company had promised to divide 50 *per cent.* for twelve years.

‘ Yesterday Mrs. Evans and Mrs. Coburne were overturned in their coach by a brewer’s car in the street : but they received no manner of hurt ; which was a great and happy escape, in which you will as truly rejoice as

‘ Your tenderly affectionate brother and servant,

H. ELPHIN,

‘ My wife joins with me in all that is kind to you and yours. I have inclosed some Letters, which my Lord St. George sent me, though late, to Elphin ; by which it will appear that he did not altogether slight our request.’

We shall close our brief quotations by transcribing a letter written in 1726 ; which is no otherwise curious than as it may help the reader to contrast 1811 with 1726, in the single article of the price of some commodities :

‘ MY LORD,

[Dec. 1726.]

‘ I should not have been so long silent, but that I was very unwilling to give you any trouble under your late affliction that you have had for the loss of so good a child. We of her relations here have bore a share with you ; it is God Almighty’s will, and we must submit, and bear what it pleases him to lay on us, with the best resolution we are masters of.

‘ I hope this night your coachman and postillion have got to Derry. I took the most prudent method I thought in sending them, by buying two horses ; which, if I am truly informed, may sell in Derry for near the price they cost here, and the saddles may be useful in the stable at Derry.

‘ The

* The price of the horses, given for servants' boots, &c. you have at the foot of this *. My woman is with me in town, and joins with me in our most humble duty to your Lordship, and very hearty respects to all yours; and I am, my Lord,

Your most obedient humble servant,

* ROB. NORMAN,

	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
* To two horses	5	4	6
To two saddles and two bridles	0	14	0
To paid the coachman to bear his expences	1	3	0
To two pair of boots	1	4	0
To charge of the horses after they were bought, till the servant went from hence	0	7	9
To paid earnest the coachman at hiring	0	2	8½
	<hr/>		
	£	8	15 21 ⁶

As we have mentioned the Editor's biographical notes, we shall add one specimen of them before we conclude, not having room for more; we take that which is appended to the first letter from Dr. Wake:

* William Wake, born in Dorsetshire 1657, was educated at Christ's Church, Oxford, 1672; M. A. there 1679; and, taking orders, became preacher at Gray's Inn. He took the degree of D. D. 1689; and was appointed deputy clerk of the closet and chaplain in ordinary to King William and Queen Mary; made dean of Christ Church in the same year; rector of St. James's, Westminster, 1694; dean of Exeter 1701; bishop of Lincoln 1705; and archbishop of Canterbury in January 1715-16. He was a man of uncommon abilities and learning; an advocate for free inquiry and liberty when he was young; but age and preferment seem to have changed him a little in that respect; at least he was far from being so zealous about them after his advancement to the see of Canterbury. He died at Lambeth, and was buried in the Bishop's Chancel at Groydon, where two black marble ledgers are thus inscribed:

I. "Depositum
GULIELMI WAKE,
Archiepiscopi Cantuariensis,
qui obiit XXIV Januarii, anno Dom. MDCCXXXVI.
ætatis suæ LXXIX,
Et
Etheldredæ uxoris ejus,
quæ obiit XI Aprilis, MDCCXXXV,
Ætatis suæ LXII."

2. "Underneath lyeth interred (near the remains of her parents) the body of Mrs. DOROTHY PENNYMAN, relict of Sir JAMES PEN-

* * Trifling as this bill may be considered, it forms a good contrast to modern expences.'

NYMAN,

WYMAN, of Thornton, in the county of York, baronet, and one of the daughters and coheirs of Dr. WILLIAM WAKE, late lord Archbishop of Canterbury. She died the 2d day of December, 1754, aged 55 years."

From so miscellaneous a mass as these volumes present, it is impossible to extract a complete idea of the whole : but we can recommend the collection to the perusal of the curious.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1811.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *Discursory Considerations on the Hypothesis of Dr. Mac-knight and others, that St. Luke's Gospel was the first written.*

By a Country Clergyman. 8vo. pp. 180. Rivingtons, &c.,

Why four distinct Gospels, by four different authors, were necessary to transmit a clear knowledge of the life and public ministry of our blessed Saviour, in preference to one complete *Apostolical Memoir*, sanctioned by the approval and testimony of all who had been *eye-witnesses and ministers of the word*, is a question which it is not now easy to solve ; and it is perhaps equally unavailing to search for the reason of the silence of the Evangelists respecting the writings of their brethren. Luke, indeed, speaks of many who, previously to his narrative, had undertaken a history of the life of Christ ; and though he employs no severity of remark in speaking of the attempts of his predecessors, the very circumstance of his setting himself to compose a Gospel seems to imply a conviction of the imperfection of those narratives to which he refers, and precludes the possibility of our supposing that he ranked *Matthew, Mark, and John* among the *many* who are specified in his preface *. St. Luke certainly considered Theophilus

* A Correspondent ventures on a different inference. He is of opinion that most of the twelve disciples of our Lord, and many of the other Seventy, who were afterward chosen, composed narratives of the transactions of Christ's public ministry ; and that these, together with the Gospels now in being, constituted the Apostolic Memoirs of our Saviour so often cited by Justin Martyr. He desires us to recollect that St. Luke does not reprobate the compositions of those who before him had offered narratives of the life of Christ, which he certainly would have done had *spurious Gospels* merely been in his contemplation :—that the purport of Luke's preface is not to elevate himself above other evangelical historians, but only to assert his qualifications for becoming the writer of an *authentic* history of our Lord, grounded on his knowledge and patient examination of the subject ; and that he might have known of the gospels of Matthew and Mark, but was resolved that their testimony should not preclude his own. It seemed good to him, in spite of pre-existing documents, to

Theophilus as in want of a good history of the words and works of Jesus Christ, which desideratum it was his object to supply. So far all is clear : but the question is, if authentic narratives of the life of Christ had been composed which had obtained the sanction of the Church, could Luke have avoided the mention of them, and is not the want of reference a negative proof that the other Gospels did not exist when Luke wrote? The 'Country Clergyman' regards this silence as an argument for the *protography* of Luke's Gospel : but another question occurs, equally perplexing to solve ; if Luke's narrative preceded those of the other Evangelists, how happened it that they never quote nor refer to this original gospel? This difficulty is obviated in the Considerations before us by a denial of the fact. The author insists that the words, Matt. ii. 1. "*Now when Jesus was born in Bethlehem of Judea, in the days of Herod the King,*" are palpably *referential*; and he asks to what memorialist antecedent to St. Luke he could have referred? In our opinion, however, this *palpable reference* will be seen only by his own eyes ; and most of his readers will avail themselves of the permission which he, very good humouredly indeed, gives them, of comparing him to the romantic lover who saw his mistress "where she had not been."

In supporting Dr. Macknight's hypothesis of the priority of St. Luke's Gospel, this writer has displayed no inconsiderable ingenuity ; and his strictures on Drs. Owen, Townson, and Lardner, are in general much to the point : but while he exposes the slender ground on which some of their assertions stand, he does not succeed to our satisfaction in establishing the proposition which he labours with so much energy to demonstrate. It is contended that the only integral *gospel* * of all

present to Theophilus such a regular commentary as his own experience and inquiries had furnished. So far, we are reminded, Luke's preface speaks, and also asserts its *comprehensive range* : but, unluckily for Luke, the consequence which he assumes, of having related "*all that Jesus both did and taught, until the day in which he was taken up into heaven,*" is not borne out by a comparison of his Gospel with the other three, particularly with that of St. John ; whose *supplemental details* derogate from St. Luke's history as a complete document including *all* that was done and taught by our Saviour.

* The author gives a long note to shew that *εὐαγγέλιον*, 2 Cor. viii. 18. stands for a *written gospel*, and that St. Luke's Gospel is meant in this passage. As well might he adduce "*My gospel,*" mentioned in Romans xvi. 25., to prove that St. Paul was the author of a written gospel. It is the general opinion of scripture-critics, established on very good evidence, that, at the time of the Apostle's preaching, the Memoirs of the Life of Christ had not obtained the appellation or title of Gospels. How often is the phrase *the Gospel of Christ*, or *the Gospel of God*, used in the Epistles with no such reference? With as little reason to justify him, does this Country-Clergyman endeavour to maintain that *ἀγαπητός*, the epithet affixed to *Λουκᾶς ὁ ιατρός* in Col. iv. 14. 'alludes to the high Evangelical Distinction of St. Luke, as having then (exclusively) *WRITTEN a Gospel*;' and 'that *ιατρός* is equivalent to *εὐαγγελιστής*.' Learned distinctions become farcical when they labour a point against all probability and common sense.

the

the four is that of St. Luke ; and that ' the circumstance of Matthew's having omitted to give any account of so important a fact as the Ascension appears perfectly inexplicable, on any principle but that of St. Luke having before recorded it.' We suspect that these assumptions would lead too far, and would render all the other gospels mere supplements to that of Luke ; a light in which we cannot regard them. In short, we are under the necessity of observing that the ' Country-Clergyman' has attempted much and accomplished little ; that his disquisitions are laboured with much patience, but are not satisfactory ; and that they are more valuable for the incidental information which they communicate, than for the light which they throw on the proposed object of inquiry.

Art. 16. *The Twenty-fourth of St. Matthew critically examined* ; with Strictures on the Opinions of Bishops Newton and Porteus, and particularly of Bishop Horsley. In a Letter to a Country Clergyman. By N. Nisbett. 8vo. pp. 74. 3s. White, &c. 1810.

Learned commentators have not only "viewed in Homer more than Homer knew," but have made Evangelists and Apostles declare more than they ever intended. The 24th of Matthew is a case in point ; and in consequence of its having been *over explained*, infidels, particularly Gibbon, have endeavoured to bring into discredit the prophecies of the N. T. We are obliged to Mr. Nisbett, therefore, for his judicious strictures on this mis-interpreted chapter. He has fully shewn that it relates entirely to one subject, viz. the Destruction of Jerusalem ; and that the conjectures of those writers, who have supposed that it is prophetic also of the last judgment, are altogether unfounded. By various quotations from the O. T., he fully proves that expressions and metaphors equally strong with those which are employed by our Lord, in this chapter, are used by the antient prophets in denouncing the fall of states and cities ; and that the *shaking of the heavens and the earth* alludes only to wars and political convulsions, without any farther or secondary reference to the dissolution of all things. The letter thus concludes :

' On the whole it must appear that our Lord's prediction in the xxivth of Matthew relates entirely and exclusively to *the destruction of Jerusalem* ; which our Lord considered as the final and decisive proof to all future ages, and particularly to *the Jewish nation*, how much the nature of his character was mistaken, when it was supposed that he was to be a *temporal prince*, to conduct them to conquest, and to universal empire.'

Mr. N. proposes to publish a series of Letters illustrative of the Gospel History and Epistles.

Art. 17. *Thoughts on the Emancipation of Roman Catholics.* By Mr. James Crowley, formerly a Student in the College of Maynooth. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1811.

The object of this writer is not the *civil* but the *religious* emancipation of the Catholics. Having in the college of Maynooth read and studied himself *out of* the belief of the Romish Religion, he addresses himself to the members of the church in which *he* was edu-

eated, and exhorts them also to emancipate themselves from its errors. He writes with great spirit and energy, like a man who is in earnest ; examines in detail the distinguishing tenets of the Catholic church ; and contends that they are not warranted by Holy Scripture :

‘ Whoever (says he) diligently searches the Holy Scriptures will assuredly find, that the doctrines to which the church of Rome imperiously requires our assent, and which are announced as the marks of the true church, have, in no respect, any connexion whatsoever with the genuine doctrines of Christ and his Apostles : and whoever can rescue his mind from early prejudices, and is capable of due reflection, will soon easily discover this most important and alarming truth, that while Christianity, as taught by the Apostles, contains the strongest proofs, the strongest internal evidences, of its having originated with God, the religion of the church of Rome, not at all sanctioned by Holy Writ, furnishes the most cogent reasons for a firm persuasion of its having been ingeniously fabricated by designing men, under the impulse of the worst passions that belong to human nature — under the impulse of those passions which, of all others, are the most opposite to the virtues that distinguish Christianity — under the impulse of those passions which have occasioned by far the greatest part of human misery — in a word, under the joint impulse of a lust of power, pride, and covetousness. And if the doctrines of the church of Rome — if those articles which separate it from all others, can be easily traced to a lust of power, pride, and covetousness, on the part of those by whom they were propagated, surely they ought, without hesitation, to be condemned, rejected, and spurned at, by every good and every wise, every sincere and every courageous follower of Christ.’

If we may believe Mr. C.’s reports, the cause of Catholicism is declining among the Irish, and learning and scriptural inquiry are liberating their minds from the dominion of sacerdotal tyranny and superstition. He *speaks out* respecting the source and result of his own conviction ; and if the Catholics pronounce him to be a heretic, they cannot refuse him the character of an honest man. The last paragraph of his essay does him honour :

‘ The darkness, which has too long overspread the Christian world, is passing rapidly away. Learning is, in this country, becoming every year more common than before : by means of Bible societies the Scriptures are now universally diffused. The Irish, naturally keen, sharp-sighted, and fond of inquiry, are already beginning to penetrate through the delusions of the church of Rome, and to express doubts which their clergy are unable to remove in a satisfactory manner : they are beginning to laugh at some of those things which they were formerly so benighted as to reverence ; and priestcraft is gradually becoming a favourite subject of ridicule or censure among them. For my part, the religion in which I was brought up, and which I often thought I never could forsake, has appeared to me, since I came to consider it closely, so absurd, in some respects ; so heathenish, in others ; so slavish, so inconsistent with the greatness and happiness of my native country ; so unlike true Christianity ; and so far from the road to salvation ; that although all my family profess it, I could never experience composure of mind ; never look with any degree of confidence,

confidence, to the enjoyment of eternal happiness hereafter ; nor ever console myself with the thought of having done my duty, and merited the intercession of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, until I had thus endeavoured to open the eyes of my fellow Christians to the alarming errors which I have discovered ; and it is my earnest wish that they may "search the Scriptures," for in them they have the words of eternal life."

What a specimen of the fruits of Maynooth College !

Art. 18. *Commentaries on the Corruptions and erroneous Doctrines of the Roman Catholic Religion.* By the Rev. James Lovell Moore, Vicar of Bengoe near Hertford, &c. Printed for the Author and sold by him at the Vicarage. 12mo. pp. 160.

Though we are inclined to doubt the fact, so roundly stated in the preface to this pamphlet, that 'the Romish Superstition is making large strides on the Reformed Religion,' it may be very proper in a protestant, who is adverting to the circumstances of the times, to expose the corruptions and errors of the Catholic System. Mr. Moore has gone over the ground in a popular way ; and while the press is free, and the authority of Scripture is maintained, his mode of reasoning must prevail. If 'our scriptural foundation must demolish that of tradition, general councils, and papal decrees,' need we fear the result of fair argument, and be alarmed for Protestantism if the Catholics obtain a full toleration ? The claim of the church of Rome to supremacy can never be substantiated. If St. Peter's power of conferring it be admitted, which cannot be allowed, this supremacy must belong to the church of Antioch, rather than to that of Rome, because he was first Bishop of the former : but all arguments deduced from St. Peter's functions as an apostle are ridiculous. He could never confer an infallibility which, it is clear from the evangelical history, he never possessed.

Mr. M. concludes with an account of the manner in which a liberal Roman catholic would reason on his conversion to protestantism ; and we have an instance in the preceding article that this mode of arguing is actually adopted by enlightened catholics. Let not, therefore, the writer of these commentaries suppose that his church is in danger. Popery may now say of Protestantism what John the Baptist said of our Lord, "He must increase ; but I must decrease."

POETRY.

Art. 19. *Poetical Pastimes.* By James Fitzgerald. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Carpenter. 1811.

That poetry which may serve as a *pastime* to the writer is often sad *time-killing stuff* to the hearer or reader. If Mr. Fitzgerald was 'more zealous in the pursuit of pleasure than of fame,' why did he turn author, and oblige us to tell him that his careless, indolent, amatory, bacchanalian muse is not proper for public exhibition ? The warmth of youth is no apology in our court for odes more warm than decorous ; for epigrams without point ; for verses wanting both rhyme and rhythm ; and for numbers which are constructed without regard to grammar. Our poetical readers will not be able, even with all their Christian charity, to tolerate such specimens as these :

' Virtue,

' Virtue, too, is a good ; but then
I leave it to the Clergymen,
Who understand its varied hue
Better than I, or say they do.' P. 60.

' Cruel breasts, we hop'd to woo in,
Often prove our utter ruin.' P. 78.

' Well, tho' his garret's rather *shy*,
I see, said George, my friend feeds high.' 123.

' Epitaph.

' *On one Building-Mad.*

' The Tenant of this narrow house
Was building all his *time*;
Yet until he came here, he vows
No house e'er fitted *him*.'

An Epitaph on a *Reaper* tells us that

' He cut his way thro' country, *town*—
But time at last has cut him down.'

When *town* is introduced without reason, and only for the rhyme, it is time to *cut Mr. F. up*, not down.

Art. 20. *The Nun*: an amatory Poem, with various desultory Poems. By an Officer of the Royal Navy. Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Ebers. 1811.

The *Nun* who becomes the heroine of a young midshipman's Muse will not be supposed to have much *nun's flesh* about her: but here she is made more *frisky* than she ought to be, in verse which is sent on shore for the purpose of publication. As *custodes morum*, we must tell this young officer of the Royal Navy, that he is an amatory writer who is *too warm by half*, especially in his '*Nun*' and his '*Fancy*;' in the other pieces he is more calm: but love is the prevailing subject. For poems composed at sea, between the ages of sixteen and twenty, in the leisure moments which the intervals of duty as a midshipman afforded him, some indulgence may be claimed: but it was not decorous to publish them afterward, and *by subscription* too. Did he send *the Nun* round to his subscribers as a specimen? We copy the shortest poem, intitled

' IMPROMPTU on making *Land*.

' Think, lads, on the approaching hour,
When love, and every softer power,
Will claim you for their own.
Clasp'd in a parent's aged arms,
Or gazing on a Delia's charms,
A flower scarcely blown.'

This naval officer has not aimed at high polish, and should have remained satisfied with the applause of his mess-mates.

Art. 21. *The Genius of the Thames*; a Lyrical Poem, in Two Parts. By Thomas Love Peacock. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Hookhams. 1810.

This is an elegant little volume. The description of well-known scenery on the banks of the most delightful of rivers would offend us indeed, if it were not well executed: but we have read this poem with considerable satisfaction. It revives a thousand agreeable recollections in a natural and pleasing manner. The versification is flowing and easy, and occasionally diversified with a very harmonious effect. The language, too, is correct, generally speaking; and the author has produced a composition which on the whole is so good that it deserves to be better. We shall therefore attempt to admonish him of some few faults and inaccuracies which disfigure his pages; and which, if he writes again, we doubt not that he will avoid, since his taste seems to be classical and refined. The following expressions are not to be passed without critical condemnation:

‘ Sweet was the choral song,
When in *Arcadian* vales,
Primeval shepherds twined the *Aonian* wreath,’ &c. &c.

This confused common-place would have required correction in a schoolboy’s exercise. ‘Thirst-crazed wretch’ is a weak effort for a strong epithet. ‘Invert the field!’ for ‘plough’ it, is very forced. ‘Labour decking shades with beauty’ is an awkward metaphor. ‘Hymn, grim, and dim,’ are unpleasing as successive rhymes. ‘Ah! sure,’ is below the dignity of lyrical poetry. — A few other errors occur, which we do not notice: but we must remind the author that the glory of having fostered Newton belongs to Cambridge, not to Oxford, as he seems to suppose, by joining Newton’s name with that of Locke, when celebrating the honours of the latter university.

We select two passages, which we think are very creditable to the writer’s abilities. — A Roman soldier is described as in the act of violating the sanctuary of a Druid, in the wood which once covered the site of London:

— ‘ Feelings wild, and undefined,
Rush’d on the Roman Warrior’s mind :
But deeper wonder filled his soul,
When on the dead still air around,
Like symphony from magic ground,
Mysterious music stole :
Such strains as flow, when spirits keep,
Around the tombs where wizards sleep,
Beneath the cypress foliage deep,
The rites of dark solemnity :
And hands unearthly wildly sweep
The chords of elfin melody.
The strains were sad : their changeful swell
And plaintive cadence seemed to tell
Of blighted joys, of hopes o’erthrown,
Of mental peace for ever flown,

Of dearest friends, by death laid low,
And tears, and unavailing woe.
Yet something of a sterner thrill
With those sad strains consorted ill,
As if revenge had dared intrude
On hopeless sorrow's darkest mood.'

The next extract which we shall make is from the second part, where, after having described the course of the Thames as far as Twitnam, the author naturally lingers on that favourite shore;

'The stream expands; *the meadows fly*;
The stately swan sails proudly by:
Full, clear, and bright, with devious flow,
The rapid waters murmuring go.
Now open Twitnam's classic shores,
Where yet the moral muse deplores
Her Pope's unrivalled lay:
Unmoved by wealth, unawed by state,
He held to scorn the little great,
And taught life's better way.
Though tasteless folly's impious hand
Has wrecked the scenes his genius planned;—
Though low his fairy grot is laid*,
And lost his willow's pensive shade;—
Yet shall the ever-murmuring stream,
That lapt his soul in fancy's dream,
Its vales with verdure cease to crown,
Ere fade one ray of his renown.

'Fair groves, and villas glittering bright,
Arise on Richmond's beauteous height;
Where yet fond echo warbles o'er
The heaven-taught songs she learned of yore,
From mortals veiled, 'mid waying reeds,

The airy lyre of Thomson sighs,
And whispers to the hills and meads:

"*In yonder grave a Druid lies!*"

The Seasons there, in fixed return,
Around their minstrel's holy urn

Perennial chaplets twine;

Oh! never shall their changes greet,

Immortal bard! a song more sweet,

A soul more pure than thine!"

A few notes are subjoined, which serve to manifest both the learning and the taste of the writer,

Art. 22. *The Adventures of Ulysses*; on the Return to Ithaca. A classical Drama from Homer. By Mr. James Mendham, jun. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. 6d. Sherwood and Co, 1811.

Since books and pamphlets are usually purchased for instruction or amusement, not for the sake of affording readers an opportunity of exercising their charity, we are inclined to believe that the appeal

* We believe that the Grotto still remains, Rev.

which Mr. Mendham makes to their generosity will be thrown away, when he remarks in his preface that 'the less merit there is in the piece the greater will be their kindness in fostering it.' No man will blame Mr. Mendham for rejecting the silly conceit of *No man* which disgraces the *Odyssey*; and as by his theme he was constrained to follow the outline of Homer, he will not be blamed for the general management of the incidents in Polypheme's cave, in Circe's bower, on the Stygian shore, and in the palace of Ulysses at Ithaca: but his poetry will expose him to ridicule and censure. Indeed, he has no idea of blank-verse, which will be evident from Ulysses's speech to Polypheme:

'From Troy's fam'd fields we come, sad wanderers
O'er the waves. Behold the reliques of the
Grecian train, thro' various seas, by
Various perils thrown, and forc'd by storms
Unwilling on your coast; far, far from our
Destin'd course and native shore. Such was our
Fate, and such high Jove's command, nor what we
Are befits us to deny, the friends of
God-like Agamemnon, a chief in arms,
Of mighty name, who taught proud Troy and all
Her sons to bend. Victors of late, but ah!
Most wretched suppliants now, imploring
Here thus humbly at thy knee, succour,
Assistance, and thy friendly roof. Respect
Us human, and relieve us poor; at least
Bestow some hospitable gift, 'tis what
The happy to the unhappy owe, 'tis
What the gods require: revere those gods, the
Poor and strange are their constant care; to
Jove their cause and their revenge is due, he
Wanders with them, and he feels their wrongs.'

In an Air at p. 39. for the sake of the measure, Mr. M. converts ghosts into the *manes* of horses.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 23. *Pharmacopœia Officinalis Britannica*, being a new and correct Translation of the late Edition of the London Pharmacopœia; with which are incorporated, in alphabetical Order, all the Formulæ of the Edinburgh and Dublin Colleges; together with Notes explanatory of the different Processes. By Richard Stocker, Apothecary to Guy's Hospital. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1830.
The Pharmacopœia, as published by the College, was obviously not adapted for general use, and Dr. Powell's translation unluckily did not supply all the deficiencies of the original, while it was still more unfortunate in being very inaccurate. Under these circumstances, Mr. Stocker's work must be regarded as a valuable performance; since it corrects the errors of Dr. Powell, affords the necessary additions to the Pharmacopœia of the College, and at the same time possesses the farther advantage of presenting a comparative view of the three Dispensatories of London, Edinburgh, and Dublin.

W.

We have, on more than one occasion, lamented the inconvenience that must arise from the diversity subsisting between these works; and we cannot but hope that the good sense and liberality of the age may effectually remedy this evil, by the composition of an authorized *Pharmacopœia Britannica*: but, until something of this kind be accomplished, Mr. Stocker's publication may be regarded as the best substitute of which we are in possession. Since it is more immediately intended for the use of the Southern part of the island, the London Pharmacopœia is properly made the standard of comparison, to which the others are referred; and different typographical marks are adopted, by which the reader is informed how far the processes and directions of the originals differ from each other. In one respect, the author deviates from his general plan, his motives for which are thus explained:

'As there is a material difference in the arrangement adopted by each college in the formation of its Pharmacopœia, and the nomenclature introduced by the Edinburgh College more especially varies from that of the others; as the titles both of the more simple and of the compound medicines have in all of them been influenced by the state of general science at the period of their respective publications; and as the language of Chemistry, from the important discoveries of modern philosophers, is undergoing continual and almost daily change, it has been judged advisable to dispose the whole of the formulæ in alphabetical order, adopting the nomenclature of the London College as the general standard of reference.'

The question is not of much moment: but, on the whole, we think that the work would have been more perfect, had the system of the London College been followed; not because we consider that system as particularly good, but because it would have been more consistent with the general principle on which this volume is conducted.

We meet with several observations which lead us to conclude that the author is experimentally acquainted with the subject on which he writes; a qualification in which Dr. Powell was too evidently deficient. A single example, but that a very important one, will be sufficient to illustrate and establish our opinion. The following is Mr. Stocker's note on the preparation of tartar emetic:

'When certain of the oxyds of antimony are boiled with super-tartrate of potash in water, the oxyds unite with the excess of acid, and form triple salts, consisting of tartaric acid in combination both with the metallic oxyd and with potash.

'For the preparation of this important article, the Edinburgh College has selected a washed crocus of antimony, the Dublin recommends the powder of Algaroth, while the London has introduced a new oxyd, which Dr. Powell states "to have been thought upon the whole most uniform and definite, and yielded whiter crystals." There is however too much reason to apprehend that, in following the directions given in the London Pharmacopœia, the expectation of the operator will not always be realized. In repeated trials, even with the oxyd obtained from Apothecaries' Hall, the translator has never yet succeeded in procuring tartarized antimony in its usual crystallized form, and possessing its ordinary activity.'

Art. 24. *A Commentary on the Treatment of Ruptures, particularly in a state of Strangulation.* By Edward G. O'Ghegan, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. pp. 95. 3s. Highley.

Mr. O'Ghegan states the object of his work, and his motive for publication, in lofty terms. He thus commences: 'I am induced to publish the following observations, in the opinion that they afford an explanation of the phenomena attendant on strangulated hernia more satisfactory than any which has hitherto appeared, and that they lead to important improvements in the mode of treatment.' He goes on to inform us that it is not against the mode of operating, but against the previous management of the patient, that his objections lie; and he particularly specifies his dissent from all the authors who have written on the subject, with respect to what is usually called the taxis. He then quotes the directions which are given by the most celebrated surgeons, Pott, Bell, Cooper, and Lawrence; and, undismayed and uninfluenced by such great authorities, he declares his opinion that they are mistaken both in principle and practice. They all consider a hernia as a displaced viscus, which must be pushed back into its natural situation; and if this cannot be done by the most gentle means, more and more force must be employed until it is accomplished. Mr. O'Ghegan, on the contrary, regards the mere displacement as the least important part of the injury; and he conceives that the reduction would be accomplished with perfect facility, were it not impeded by a certain degree of inflammation which is induced, and still more by the intestine being distended with flatus. We must therefore proceed on the plan of using the means which may be most effectual for reducing the size of the hernia, and obviating inflammation; for which purpose he relies on the application of cold, and tobacco-injections; and bleeding he considers as often a necessary precursor. — The work is ill written, and does not impress the reader with a very favourable notion of the writer's talents; yet it contains some ideas which are not totally unimportant, and which, in abler hands, might lead to useful modifications of the present practice.

Art. 25. *An Enquiry into the Causes producing the extraordinary Addition to the Number of the Insane, together with extended Observations on the Cure of Insanity.* With Hints as to the better Management of public Asylums for insane Persons, directed with a view to their more immediate Relief, as well as the Diminution of the Charges appropriated to their Support. To which are annexed, some necessary Observations in Reply to Doctor Andrew Halliday's "Remarks on the present State of the Lunatic Asylums in Ireland &c." By William Saunders Hallaran, M. D. Physician to the Lunatic Asylum at Cork, &c. 8vo. pp. 120. Printed at Cork, and sold by Longman and Co. London. 1810.

Dr. Hallaran writes in rather a pompous style, and with much flowery declamation, which betrays a defect both of taste and of judgment; yet, as he appears to have had experience in the treatment of insanity, and as he maintains some decided opinions on practical points, we think that his work deserves attention. He takes it for granted that

the number of insane persons has of late years considerably increased in Ireland, but he gives no proof of this fact; since it is obvious that the mere circumstance of the increased number of insane persons, in the institution to which he is attached, may be otherwise explained. This augmentation, however, is in itself not improbable; and the two causes which he assigns for it, viz. the agitation of mind excited by the unsettled state of the country, and the greater use of spirituous liquors, appear to be sufficiently powerful for the production of the disease. The existence of the former of these causes is but too well known, and we fear that the latter is a daily-spreading evil.

The author takes some pains to discriminate the cases of insanity, with respect both to their symptoms and their treatment, into such as originate primarily from mental causes, and such as seem to depend on some organic derangement, especially that of the liver. There may be a foundation for his diagnosis, but he has not traced it with sufficient accuracy to enable us to make much practical use of it; and we apprehend that all which we can do at present is to inquire carefully into the previous history of the case, and then apply our remedies according to the most urgent symptoms. The part of the work which appears to us the most valuable is that which contains the remarks on the method of cure. We have first some sensible observations on the general management of the insane, and afterward on the particular remedies. Dr. H. is a great advocate for the purgative system, from the existence of symptoms which indicate a disordered state of the stomach and bowels, and especially from frequent experience of the benefit that is derived from this plan. He observes,

‘ Speaking generally of it, I would say thus far, that it is almost invariably the first and most important consideration to be attended to during the progress of an insane paroxysm. At the conclusion, and even at the more advanced period of convalescence, it will be found of the utmost consequence, not only by subduing the frequent disposition to a recurrence of the symptoms, but also confirming the point of recovery by a moderate continuance of it, long after the disorder has ceased to make its appearance.’

Dr. Hallaran gives a very decided testimony in favour of the vertical swing which was contrived by Dr. Cox:

‘ From having repeatedly found the want of some such subduing power, I was not slow in taking advantage of Doctor Cox’s observations on this subject, and accordingly sat about erecting machinery for this purpose, immediately on the publication of the first edition of his book. Having completed it to my satisfaction, I have been enabled, in a most ample manner, to put fairly to the test the extent of credit due to this invention; and where I feel myself called upon, from a sense of duty, to make a report upon a matter of so much importance, I also feel the most particular satisfaction, in having it fully in my power to acknowledge the debt owing to Doctor Cox by the public at large, for the value of his labours, and especially for his excellent application of the circulating swing, as “a moral and medical mean” in the cure of insanity.’

These remarks, we think, are very important; and, after the independent testimony of two practitioners, unconnected with each other,

in favour of a remedy of such easy application, we conceive it to be the duty of all persons who are intrusted with the care of lunatic-asylums to give the swing a fair trial. The Doctor speaks also in a very decided manner of the good effects of digitalis, which he has found useful not in subduing the violence of the maniacal paroxysm, when an increase of arterial action has taken place, but when a state of languor or debility has supervened, without any abatement of the mental derangement; and especially when the patient has suffered from want of sleep.

As we have already remarked, Dr. Hallaran seems to write from experience, and we should therefore be inclined, in most instances, to pursue the practice which he recommends; yet, on the other hand, it must be confessed that he has fallen into the common error of over-estimating the value of the remedies which he suggests, and of raising in the minds of the inexperienced such expectations as must lead to disappointment.

Art. 26. *A practical Treatise on Tinea Capitis Contagiosa, and its Cure; with an Attempt to distinguish this Disease from other Affections of the Scalp; and a Plan for the Arrangement of cutaneous Appearances, according to their Origin and Treatment; including an Enquiry into the Nature and Cure of Fungi hematodes and Navi materni. The whole exemplified by Cases. By W. Cooke, Surgeon, at Brentford. 8vo, 10s. 6d. Boards. Craddock and Joy. 1810.*

The disease which forms the principal subject of this treatise, although not one of those which are dangerous to life, is often extremely distressing to the feelings of the patient; and notwithstanding that its cure is frequently accomplished without difficulty, instances sometimes arise in which it appears to baffle all our resources. We were glad, therefore, to receive a work promising to enter into a full investigation of the complaint; to point out those circumstances by which it might be certainly recognized; and lastly, to put us in possession of an infallible means of curing it. How far these promises are fulfilled, it must be our business to examine.

Mr. Cooke begins by an account of the disease, and some animadversions on the descriptions that have been given by other authors. An attempt is then made to distinguish between the true tinea and a spurious variety. The symptoms of both appear to be very similar, and, as far as external characters are concerned, the only diagnostic circumstance is the falling-off of the hair in the proper tinea. The most important differences between them, however, consist in the genuine tinea being alone contagious, and in its being merely local and requiring only local remedies; whereas the spurious disease appears to be symptomatic of a constitutional affection, and is generally cured by the removal of those causes which act on the constitution at large. The establishment of these points comprizes nearly the whole of what appears to us of much value in the volume of Mr. Cooke: but they are points of importance; and supposing them to be decidedly proved, we should have made a real advance in our knowledge. The following is the author's description or definition of the disease:

‘ *Tinea*

1. *Tinea capitis contagiosa* I offer as a term for the following morbid appearance; namely, a slightly raised scurfy patch, suddenly attacking the scalp, accompanied with itching, and a separation of the hairs:—it generally commences in the form of a ring, in the centre of which the hairs at first remain, till the disease gradually spreads, when baldness succeeds, with occasional ulceration of parts of the scalp, denuding the pericranium; in which state it has been commonly known by the appellation of scald-head.

Mr. Cooke then refers to a number of writers, both antient and modern, in order to prove that his distinction between the two species of the disease was either unknown or disregarded by them. If any doubt yet remains on the subject, it cannot be from an uncertainty as to the question whether other authors believed in the existence of two distinct species of the tinea, but whether Mr. C. be justified in his attempt to form those two distinct species. We are disposed to think that a foundation for the opinion exists: but at present the fact rests almost entirely on his own authority; and on medical subjects the concurrence of two or more testimonies is absolutely necessary. Mr. Cooke, however, is not satisfied with having established a distinction between the two diseases, but has formed an hypothesis to account for the variation, by supposing that the two species differ in their seat, or in the part of the skin which they primarily affect. The real tinea, in which the hair falls off, depends on a diseased action of the vessels of the cellular membrane, which nourish the bulbs of the hair; while the *membrana vasculosa*, which lies immediately under the cuticle, is the seat of that species in which the hair remains. The exciting causes of this latter sort appear to be that state of the gums which attends dentition, and a constipated or irregular condition of the bowels. Washing the head, applying to it the oiled cap, lancing the gums when they are the exciting cause, or giving purgatives when the bowels are in fault, are generally found to remove the scurfiness of the head; while the contagious tinea requires no constitutional remedies, but is relieved by the application of strong stimulating ointments, of which the most useful is the nitric-oxyd ointment of the new Pharmacopœia.—These observations will, we think, be found to embrace all the practical information which Mr. Cooke has bestowed on his readers, and we are disposed to receive it with some reliance; but, though we feel grateful for this addition to our stock of knowledge, we should have been more thoroughly pleased if the work had been written with less confidence, with less parade of learning, and with fewer quotations, which in general are of no use but to display the reading of the author.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *The Impress considered as the Cause why British Seamen desert from our Service to the Americans*; with a Review of the Encouragement now held out by the Royal Navy, and the Means in our Power of abolishing the Impress. 8vo. pp. 29. 1s. 6d. Luffman.

Those who are qualified by education to think for themselves on the principles of Government, and whose leisure admits of that continued reflection which is seldom within the power of public function-

aries, must often experience surprise on considering the measures even of those who are styled the most vigilant administrations. If we look to the Continent, we observe Bonaparte propagating the most bitter hatred of himself and his government, by enforcing the conscription throughout Italy, the North of Germany, and other quarters, whose levies, when called into action, take the first opportunity to forsake his standards :—if we look at home, we find, among other examples of mismanagement, that, by our adherence to an antiquated system of mercantile policy, our commerce to both the Indies, instead of augmenting our resources, threatens to become a serious burden to the mother-country. Among those unnecessary and pernicious measures, we have no hesitation in ranking the impress of seamen ; a custom the maintenance of which we all lament, but which most of us persist in gravely considering as indispensable to our naval grandeur. It has always appeared to us that, if the situation of seamen in the navy be rendered comfortable, no more necessity for compulsion will exist in that than in other occupations ; and the author of the little tract before us informs his readers, that a most material improvement in the condition of the seamen in the navy has taken place since the beginning of the war of 1793. Their provisions, which in former days were often inadequate, are now ample ; their pay has been doubled ; and in regard to that important article, prize-money, the shares of the able seamen have been considerably increased. In the merchant-service, the seaman's task is more laborious, and his consumption of clothing is greater, without either regular medical assistance or a pension in case of bodily hurt. The disadvantages of service in a privateer are still more serious ; the danger of bodily injury being great, that of capture being considerable, and no provision being made in return for either. A country-labourer, with only twelve shillings a-week, out of which every thing must be found, is much worse situated than the seaman in the navy, who has seven shillings a-week, with board, lodging, and the chance of prize-money. So substantial are these advantages, that the author of this pamphlet concludes that nothing but the compulsory entrance, and the state of habitual restraint, would make seamen undervalue the navy. Were they to enter voluntarily, and to be admitted to greater liberty in going on shore, we should hear much less of their murmuring or attempting to run. Our sailors would in that case feel in regard to the service what the Irish would have felt in the case of the Union,—much better pleased with it, if it had not been forced on them.

The writer supports his reasoning by a reference to the conduct of the Marines, none of whom are pressed, and whose bounty is inferior to that of the army, yet their recruiting goes on with facility. On the 21st of March 1809, were employed

Seamen in our navy	-	-	98,600
Marines	-	-	31,400
Seamen in our Mercantile Navigation			157,000

The duties of marines on ship-board are now more various than formerly, since they not only work at the great guns, but manage on deck the ropes and other powers which sustain the yards and sails. The author recommends that both the range of their duties and the amount

instead of their numbers, as a corps, should be increased. An augmentation of the marines would countervail any temporary diminution of our seamen, which might result from allowing to them a greater latitude in going on shore; we say temporary diminution, because we are perfectly satisfied, with this writer, that the ultimate effect of this state of liberty would be a great increase in our seamen generally, and particularly in those of our navy. It would draw seamen from their concealment, it would increase the number of youths who are brought up to the occupation, and would cut short the alarming emigration to the American service.—We decline to enter into any discussion of the propriety of the author's recommendation to recruit the marines from the militia: but we are disposed to agree with him very fully in other respects; and we conclude our notice of his tract by quoting the very satisfactory statement (p. 25.) in support of the argument from the improved health of our navy, that 'out of 10,000 men employed last year off Toulon, the number of deaths did not exceed sixty.'

Art. 28. *A Constitution for the Spanish Nation*, presented to the Supreme Junta of Spain and the Indies, 1st November 1809, by Alvaro Florez Estrada, Attorney-General of the Principality of Asturias. Translated from the Original by W. Burdon. 8vo. pp. 54. Sherwood and Co.

Señor Estrada was among the earliest opponents of Bonaparte in the province of Asturias, and was one of the deputies who, it will be recollected, repaired to London three years ago to solicit the co-operation of our arms. He has thus approved himself from the beginning a friend to liberty; and the present performance is composed in the spirit of a true patriot. He dates the downfall of Spanish freedom so far back as the loss of her Cortez, and insists with repeated arguments on the necessity of admitting the people to a decisive influence in the government. He is a zealous advocate for the liberty of the press; and with an extent of philosophic decision which we scarcely expected from a native of Spain, he boldly pronounces that all the evils of society originate in the prevalence of ignorance, 'Man,' he says, 'is never unjust but when he is timid or ignorant; and he is timid or ignorant only because he is not free.' Señor Estrada's plan of government is that of a limited monarchy, in which the royal prerogative is restricted within limits considerably more confined than those of the British Crown. The King, according to his scheme, ought not to have the power of making war and peace, nor of assembling troops in time of peace; nor of giving a direct *Veto* to those acts which may have passed the two Houses of which this writer recommends that the legislature should be composed. These Houses are to be denominated the Upper and Lower, but neither is to resemble our House of Peers, the abolition of nobility being one of his fundamental positions. The title of sovereign he confers not on the monarch alone, but on the monarch and the two Houses collectively. One of the most remarkable articles in the proposed constitution is No. 99, which provides that

* If the sovereign shall enact a law, and all the provincial congresses oppose

oppose it, it shall be repealed, and this resistance shall be called the *Grand Law.*'

Our attention was drawn to this passage, as well by the oddity of the term *Grand Law* when applied to popular resistance, as by the singular delight which the idea gives to the translator; who is so transported with this apparently plain regulation, as to declare that he regards it as 'one of the greatest discoveries of political science.'

It follows from the outline which we have given, that Señor Estrada is an enemy to such aristocratic institutions as the law of primogeniture, and a zealous friend to equality of rights. In forming an opinion of his production, we should not forget that it is the work of an inhabitant of a country far behind our own in the progress of civilization. It is liable to censure in various ways, the composition in the introductory part being hasty, and many of the ideas being such as to us must appear common-place; while in the sketch of the constitution, enumerations are made of several particulars that are too minute for notice in a treatise of such dignity:—we refer, in particular, to Art. 27, which describes with great precision the dress of the representatives. On the whole, however, the work is such as we should gladly see in general favour through Spain, the author's conclusions being often judicious, and his intentions always liberal.

Art. 29. *Thoughts on the Expediency of establishing a new chartered Bank*, suggested by the Application to Parliament for the Establishment of a new chartered Marine Insurance Company, and confirmed by the Report of the Bullion Committee. By Joseph Marryat, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 92. 3s. Richardson.

Our readers will recollect that Mr. Marryat was one of the most active opponents of the Marine Insurance Company proposed in the last Session*. His present pamphlet consists chiefly of a series of observations connected with the bullion-question. He passes successively in review the labours of Mr. Bosanquet, Mr. Chalmers, Mr. Eliot, and Mr. Hill; and his remarks, if not new, are in general distinguished by good sense. Though he is more of a practical than a studious man, he has carried his researches sufficiently far to discover, that the landholders act under a delusion in raising the price of corn by restrictions on import from abroad; and he has likewise attained knowledge enough of the principles of exchange to be satisfied, that it is bad policy to prohibit the exportation of coin. At other times, as when commenting on the conduct of bankers, we are inclined to think that he attempts to push his arguments too far. No respectable banker will raise money on bills which are merely lodged with him for safe custody; and the proportion of failures among them has not been large, if we take their increased number, as a body, into account. We do not, however, mean to accuse Mr. Marryat of exaggeration in his estimate of the overgrown power and profits of the Bank of England. Whatever may be the personal respectability of the Directors, the engine itself is too large for a free country; and

* See our Review of his Speech, Number for April 1810.

we are disposed to think that much public good would result from granting permission to establish another. We are averse, however, to the imposition, on the part of the legislature, of the regulations proposed by Mr. Marryat in regard to their conduct towards each other, and should be disposed to leave all such arrangements to the corporations themselves.

Art. 30. *A Letter to John Theodore Koster, Esq.*, in which the Arguments used by that Gentleman *, to demonstrate that Bank-Notes are not depreciated, are considered and refuted; in which it is also contended that Mr. Huskisson has not determined the Extent to which Bank-Notes are depreciated. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. 6d. Cradock and Joy.

The Writer of this Letter leans to the opinion that Bank-notes are depreciated, but confesses that he has difficulty in satisfying his mind about it. He begins by making a statement of the question at issue between Mr. Huskisson and Mr. Koster, and enters afterward into a minute examination of the notions of the latter gentleman. So much has been said and written on the general bearings of the subject, that it could afford little interest to our readers to discuss the merit of these opposite writers in its subordinate departments. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the observation, that the present author is not unsuccessful in his attacks on Mr. Koster, though he is himself liable, from an imperfect knowledge of political economy, to fall into errors; such as the notion (p. 21.) * that the money sent out of the country in the shape of subsidies and foreign expences has a tendency to make our commodities cheaper. Subsidies and foreign expences are not eventually deductions from our circulating medium, but from the produce of our industry, the value of which cannot be lessened by increasing its amount. The provision for foreign as well as for other expences must be made, in part at least, by our taxes, the tendency of which is evidently to enhance commodities. In regard to the circulating medium, the temporary drain from it, for the purpose of sending abroad, is and must be speedily replaced; the currency of a country being one of those things which never fail to provide for themselves.

NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 31. *The Young Sea-Officer's Sheet Anchor; or a Key to the Leading of Rigging, and to practical Seamanship.* By Darcy Lever. 4to. with many Plates. 3l. 3s. Boards. Richardson.

We think that this work merits the highest praise that has hitherto been bestowed on any treatise, of which the professed object was the instruction of young officers in the various branches of marine service. To practical seamen, it may be considered an useless study: but even with respect to them, many suggestions of a scientific nature here occur which are not unworthy of their attention; particularly in page 84, on a Ship's Gripping, and in page 99, on Drifting; with many others equally judicious.

* See Review for March last, p. 315.

The perspicuity with which every topic is treated, and illustrated by the plates, (which are superior to any hitherto published on this subject,) renders the work very beneficial to youth; who, by studying the theory in most of its branches, will more readily acquire the practice, than by remaining ignorant of causes, which are so ably explained in the present volume. The principle of working ships is made intelligible to the meanest capacity; and when this is studied in addition to that knowledge which already renders British officers and seamen so superior to all other mariners, they must become as scientific as they are acknowledged to be expert. In practice, they are without a rival; by the peculiar arrangement of the interior of their ships, by the selection of all ranks agreeably to their several capacities, and by that wonderful activity and spring which pervade the minds of every class, they have arrived at a point unknown before in the management of our ships of war: — but, high as our naval officers stand in knowledge and experience, much is yet to be acquired by them on the subject of the motion of those bodies which are the wonder and admiration of the world.

Mr. Lever's treatise on rigging is very instructive; but, even since the publication of his book, improvements of some moment have taken place; and that which has generally been adopted in the navy, of substituting one hanging Jear Block with a long and a short leg round the mast-head, instead of the two that were formerly used with lashings, relieves the mast-head from much unnecessary weight. Most of the topics here introduced, as Mr. Lever observes, have been treated before in various ways, but by no means with such precision, nor elucidated by such figures, as the present work exhibits. His management of a ship in light winds when missing stays, in working in bad weather, and in tending at single anchor, cannot fail to contribute much to the improvement of youth; and his able discourse on the latter operation is by no means the least meritorious part of the volume.

We have said that the plates in this publication are well executed; but we must add that, although the author's designs are intended to represent ships of war, it is evident that they were built and fitted in a mercantile port. We can, however, recommend Mr. Lever's work as containing nothing that is superfluous, and all things that are useful, on the subject which it treats.

MINERALOGY.

Art. 32. A Methodical Distribution of the Mineral Kingdom into Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties. By Edward Daniel Clarke, L.L.D. late Fellow of Jesus' College, Cambridge. Folio. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Mineralogy has given birth to more numerous systems than any other department of Natural History. This diversity of opinion in the methodical arrangement of mineral bodies is to be ascribed partly to the state of the science, which must be regarded as yet only in its infancy, and partly to the mistaken views of systematic writers, who have proceeded on the erroneous assumption that nature holds out sufficiently distinct and precise characters to admit of what is denominated

nated a natural division or natural system ; without recollecting that all our arrangements are really artificial, and are constructed for the purpose of assisting the memory, and facilitating the progress of the mind in investigation. The authors of mineralogical systems may be divided into two classes ; those who proceed in their arrangements according to chemical principles, or the composition of minerals, and those who profess to adopt the method of distribution according to the external characters. The fact, however, is that the latter method is more closely connected with the former than its authors, who are seldom chemists, are willing to allow. By a change of names, it is imagined that a complete change in the nature of the system is supposed to be effected.

The arrangement proposed by Dr. Clarke is more purely chemical than any which have preceded it. The character of the classes, of which we have four, viz. *Earths, Metals, Combustibles, and Alkalies*, is derived from the 'predominating elementary principle.' The first class, the *Earths*, includes two orders, which are characterized by the property of the earth in combination 'with an acid,' or 'without an acid.' Each earth constitutes a genus ; the species are formed according to the peculiar combinations of minerals ; and the varieties are designated by their trivial names. We give an example :

'CL. I. AN EARTH. Ord. 1. *With an acid.* Gen. 1. *LIME.* Spec. 1. *With carbonic acid.* Var. Rockmilk, Chalk, Limestone, Marble, Stalactite, Fetid Stone, Spar.'

The 2d Class, the *Metals*, is divided into two Orders : 1. *Ductile* ; and 2. *Not Ductile* ; — the 3d Class, the *Combustibles*, also comprehends two Orders : 1. *Simple* ; and 2. *Compound* ; — and the 4th Class, the *Alkalies*, includes only one Order, namely, '*with an Acid.*' A postscript is annexed, stating that Ammonia is not excluded from its place among the alkalies, although it be not the last result of chemical analysis. The same must now be said of potass and soda, which are also compounds ; so that the author's system is here defective, and would require to be re-arranged ; as well as in the case of zinc, which is now found to possess the properties of ductility and malleability in a high degree, and therefore ought to be placed in the order of ductile metals.

The remark already made on the near approach of systems, which their authors suppose are essentially different, is by no means inapplicable to Dr. Clarke's method ; for let the orders be discarded, and let the varieties take the place of the species, and we have the old arrangement. In other respects, we do not perceive that the present system is distinguished from its precursors by any peculiar advantages. Indeed, we consider Dr. Clarke's attempt as premature ; and we venture to predict that even the rapid progress of chemical science will not soon obtain for it a general reception.

The typographic department of this work is executed in a most expensive and pompous style. The whole might have been easily included within the limits of a small pamphlet.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *A Narrative of the Life, Sufferings, and Adventures of Robert Jeffery, the Seaman, who was put on the desolate rock of Sombbrero,*

Sombrero, December 13, 1807, and continued there Eight Days and a half, without any Sort of Provision. With Documents illustrative of the whole. Taken down from his own Mouth. 8vo: 1s. Crosby, &c.

A slender account of this ill-treated young man, whose case is so well known to the public, is here presented to us, as collected from his own information. It does not materially differ from nor add to the particulars which have been already circulated, except in stating that he has received 600*l.* from the family of Captain Lake, (who set him on shore at Sombrero,) as a compensation for his sufferings, and for promising *not to prosecute* the Captain. This, Jeffrey declares, 'was all his contract'; and 'finding his health so much impaired as to be unable to follow his own business, (that of a blacksmith,) he hopes that 'a generous public will not think he does wrong' in endeavouring to add to that sum by the sale of this pamphlet, and by exhibiting a picture of himself, landing on the island, at Wigley's Rooms, Spring Gardens.

CORRESPONDENCE.

J. L. has written to us a long, serious, and argumentative letter, on the poetic merits of Dr. Young, because in p. 69. of our Number for January last we spoke of him as a 'religious *versifier*;' the latter word appearing to this ardent admirer of the Doctor to be derogatory from his fame. We do not mean, however, to discuss with our correspondent the long-settled question relative to the poetic talents of this unequal, often unpolished, but occasionally grand and powerful writer; and we shall only say that the term *versifier* was not applied by us in a depreciating sense.

We have received the letter of W. W. from Newport, Salop, and wish him success in his intended new work.

How can 'a Constant Reader' suppose that we shall pay any attention to his unsupported allegations?

'A correspondent of the Monthly Review suggests (in observation upon Jones's *Latin Grammar*, Vol. l*xv.* p. 88.) that the *Ablative Absolute* may not be lost to its old acquaintances, for, although [Ovid. Tr.]

"*Sæpe, premente deo, fert deus alter opem,*"

may express cause and effect; yet, how will Mr. Jones bend to this remark, [Virg. Georg. i. 127.]

"*ipsaque tellus*
*Omnia liberius; nullo p*re*sente, feret at?*"

The Appendix to the last Vol. of the M. R. was published with the Number for May, on the 1st of June,



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1811.

ART. I. *Historical Sketches of the South of India*, in an Attempt to trace the History of Mysoor; from the Origin of the Hindoo Government of that State, to the Extinction of the Mohammedan Dynasty in 1799. Founded chiefly on Indian Authorities collected by the Author while officiating for several Years as Political Resident at the Court of Mysoor. By Lieut. Colonel Mark Wilks. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 517. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

THE career of Indian history was opened by Orme in a manner which will not easily be surpassed; and his account of the *Military Transactions of the British Nation in Hindoostan* is growing on our interest, with the importance of the empire of which he sketched the origin. It is history taken from the life, sprung up among the men and on the spot, painted from nature with the precision of portraiture, and without any of the cold formality of a classic monumental trophy. Free from scholastic artifice, the happy distribution and proportion of the matter result from a clear head and a sound judgment. Instructed by observation, and superior to national prejudice, his equity has been praised at Paris by Anquetil du Perron; who was a judge both of his Oriental and his British information, and who characterizes him, in the Oup'nechat, as "*eruditissimus et veritatis amantissimus India historiographus*."

Orme's *Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire* are not, however, of so admirable a staple and contexture as his *Military Transactions*; nor are they grounded on so extensive a consultation of native authorities as the vast subject required, and as the circumstances of the writer seemed to admit. The learned account of the South of India now before us, which especially pursues the History of Mysoor from the origin of the Hindoo government to the extinction of the Mohammedan dynasty in 1799, if a less lucid piece of writing, is superior in research, and does high honour to the command of information and the toil of selection which it displays.

Lieut-Col. Wilks, we have been informed, arrived in India during 1783; and his early military service differed little from that of other subalterns in a period of public difficulty. In 1787, having passed a public examination in the Persian and Hindoostanee languages, he obtained the prize appointed for those attainments; and in 1790 he resigned an appointment at Madras, for the purpose of joining the army in the field, under Lieutenant-General James Stuart: to whose staff he was attached, and by whom he was selected in 1794 to fill the most confidential situation in an intended expedition against the Mauritius, which was eventually relinquished. The Colonel was compelled by ill health to visit England in 1795: but he returned to Madras in 1799, where he successively filled the situations of military and private secretary to the Governor, Lord Clive, and afterward that of Town-major of Fort St. George, which is virtually the Lieutenant-governorship of the garrison.

In 1803 he once more joined the army in the field under General Stuart; who, in expectation of an active campaign, was again desirous of the services of Colonel Wilks on his staff. After his resignation of that employment, the Governor in Council addressed to him public thanks. — In 1804, he was appointed to officiate as Political Resident at the court of Mysoor; and in December of the same year, he forwarded a report on the interior administration and finances of that country, which was noticed with applause in the official correspondence of Marquis Wellesley, and may be considered as the first stone of that valuable compilation of materials which has been formed into the present work.

Ill health once more obliged the author to revisit his native country, in 1808; and his return was noticed in the letter of the government of Madras to the Court of Directors, dated 24th October 1808, in these honourable terms:

“ We regret to observe that Major Wilks has been compelled by extreme indisposition to relinquish his situation, in the intention of proceeding to Europe. During a considerable period of years, he filled some of the most important public stations under this presidency; and has, by the application of his zeal and distinguished talents, rendered great public services, particularly in that station which he has been recently compelled by indisposition to relinquish. At the different periods when Major Wilks has been called on to act as Resident at Mysoor, his conduct has been uniformly signalized by an honourable zeal for the public interests, combined with a judicious and firm administration of the duties of that important trust; and the material reduction which we have reported in this dispatch as having been effected by that officer in the charges of the Residency of Mysoor,

Soor, will no doubt be received by your honourable Court with particular satisfaction. We therefore beg leave to recommend Major Wilks to your attention as an officer of great public merit."

These circumstances sufficiently prove the extensive opportunities enjoyed by the author for observing the character and manners of the people, whose annals are marshalled and whose transactions are described in this work. The principal materials employed have been drawn from the following sources:

I. An historical memoir prepared under the direction of Poornia, the present minister of Mysoor.

II. A Persian manuscript found in the palace at Seringapatam, when ransacked in 1799, which is intitled "An historical account of the ancient Rajas of Mysoor, translated in 1798 by command of the Sultaun." The original Canara manuscript, whence this translation is derived, appears to have been written in 1712.

III. A manuscript and its duplicate, belonging formerly to the Dulwoys of Mysoor; who, under the title of Generals, at one time usurped the efficient authority.

IV. Minor manuscripts relating to detached facts.

V. The grants inscribed on stone or copper, which have been collected in the Musæum of Lieutenant-Colonel Colin Mackenzie; and which are of great use in fixing the chronology.

VI. Manuscript annotations of friends, to whom a rough copy of the fifth chapter was transmitted for criticism.

VII. Notes and extracts from the records of the government of Fort St. George.

VIII. Two military memoirs compiled in Persia by Abbas Ali, the field secretary of the late Hyder Ali Khan.

IX. A history of Coorg, written by the present Raja.

X. Desultory memoranda made in Mysoor for the purpose of preserving oral information.

XI. The King of Histories, or *Sultaun u Towareekh*, of which the substance was dictated by Tippoo himself. The first volume contains the genealogy and life of the Sultaun's grandfather and father; and the second furnishes his own biography.

From these various but modern sources of intelligence, the appreciation of which was much facilitated by the author's extensive intercourse with the leading men of the nation whose chronicler he is become, he has derived, digested, and distilled the substance of the following history; which was partly composed in Hindoostan, and partly on ship-board during the home-passage. A few illustrative and corrective notes have since been added, resulting from the examination of documents preserved in the library of the India-house at London.

Chapter I., which opens with reflections on the imaginary happiness of the early societies of mankind, tends much to narrow the expectations which have been formed in Europe, of penetrating by means of Hindoo literature into the antient history of the East. The ruling families of the Indian peninsula advance no pretensions to a remote antiquity; and it is only from the distribution of the extant dialects, that the original distribution of empire can be conjectured. These dialects (p. 5.) are principally the Canara, the Mahratta, the Telinga, the Tamul, and the Malabar; so that the Dekkan, or country south of the river Nermudda, may be presumed to have consisted in former ages of five independent nations. In the state of savage anarchy, each family has its peculiar talk, the instinctive invention of maternal solicitude. The children of a village soon interchange their domestic acquirements. Military co-operation, if continued long, will render common to a whole tribe the limited vocabulary of the distinct villages from which the recruits have been taken; and the permanent political combinations, which have every where at first grown out of warfare intended to be transient, at length combine and consolidate these provincial dialects into a national language. Speech is confluent, rather than diffuent: in barbarous ages, every wapentake had its jargon; and perhaps civilization will at length unite several national languages into one general tongue.

Colonel Wilks commences his inquiries (p. 10.) with the Mohammedan invasion of the Dekkan, which was undertaken in 1293 by Alla u Deen, the nephew and eventual successor of Ferose, the Patan king of Delhi. Another and more profitable expedition, under Kafoor, crossed the Kistna in 1310, and plundered the metropolis Doorsummooder, which stood about 100 miles north-west of Seringapatam.

The fame of the riches of the south, verified by the spoils of this inroad, occasioned in 1323 another predatory expedition, which terminated in the capture of Warankul, the capital of Telingana. The fugitive Hindoos retired southward, founded a new seat of government at Videya-nuggur, and thus transplanted the Telingan language into the Carnatic. Hurryhur, a treasurer to the dethroned king of Warankul, headed these retreating colonists, and handed down to his posterity a rajaship, which terminated in 1387. The irruption of Timoor, which began in 1396, overthrew all the previous land-marks of Indian geography: but, by drawing northward the attention of the Mohammedan princes of the peninsula, it prolonged the independence and apparent consequence of Videya-nuggur, — which, however, in 1564 received a Mohammedan sovereign.

The Hindoo house of Mysoor next concentrated public attention, as the natural chieftains of the idolatrous interest in the Dekkan. In the second chapter, a legendary story of its origin is given; the acquisition of Seringapatam is related; and the conquests of successive kings are specified. The reign of Cauty Reva Narsa Raj, which extended from 1638 to 1658, affords many opportunities of appreciating the degree of civilization to which Mysoor had attained in the time of Cromwell, and which lingered behind that of Europe by half a millennium.

' This person was the son of the gallant and generous Betad Cham Raj Wadeyar. The government returned in his person to the elder branch, from which it had been wrested by the deposition of his father, whose martial spirit he inherited, without his careless extravagance and incapacity for finance.

' An instance is preserved of his chivalrous spirit, which seems to be well authenticated. While living in obscurity in a remote village, during the former reigns, a travelling bramin from Trichinopoly mentioned in conversation a celebrated champion at that court, who had defeated all antagonists from every part of India, and had now proclaimed a general challenge. Cauty Reva being desirous of seeing this celebrated personage, requested the bramin to be his guide and companion to Trichinopoly, where, concealing his rank, he presented himself as the antagonist of the challenger; and the broad sword having been determined as the weapon, he defeated and slew the champion, in presence of the whole court, assembled to witness the contest. The Raja of Trichinopoly was desirous of distinguishing and retaining in his service this remarkable stranger; but he absconded in the night, and returned to his humble habitation, where the incident was soon made public.

' Such was the character of the man whom an usurping minister had the audacity to select for his nominal master.

' On his arrival at Mysoor, where it was still the practice to install the Rajas, the minister ordered that he should be lodged in an exterior apartment: and assigning to him a few personal attendants, announced, in a manner sufficiently intelligible, the condition to which he was destined, by departing on a tour of the neighbouring districts, without going through the form of installing him, or even the decent observance of paying his personal respects. During the tour it was reported to the minister that the Raja appeared to be dissatisfied, and would probably attempt to recover his independence: — "Let him take care," said the minister, negligently, "and remember that I have not yet installed him."

' The murder of Immadee Raja, and the facts which have just been stated, constitute the grounds of the conjecture which has been hazarded regarding the condition of the two preceding Rajas; and the open and contemptuous arrogance of the minister's demeanor on the present occasion seems to furnish abundant proof of an absolute usurpation.

' During the absence of the minister, two of the attendants appointed to wait on the Raja elect secretly unfolded to him the history

of the murder of his predecessor, and offered their services to dispatch the usurper: this was accordingly effected on the very night subsequent to his arrival at Mysoor, after he had gone through the form of paying a visit of ceremony to the Raja.

The detail of this transaction has been preserved in several manuscripts. The two attendants (Peons, or foot soldiers) scaled the walls of the minister's court-yard after dark, and lay in wait for an opportunity to effect their purpose. Shortly afterwards the minister appeared, preceded by a torch-bearer, passing towards a detached apartment. The associates first killed the torch-bearer, and the light happened to be entirely extinguished. "Who are you?" said the minister. "Your enemy!" replied one of the Peons; and made a blow. The minister, however, closed with him, and being the more powerful man, threw him to the ground, and held him by the throat, in which situation he called out for aid. The night was so very dark that his companion was afraid to strike at random. "Are you uppermost or undermost?" "Undermost," cried the half-strangled Peon, and this information enabled his associate to strike the fatal blow.

Canterava Narsa Raj was installed on the following day, and in two days afterwards proceeded to the seat of government at Seringapatam. In the first year of his accession he had to defend the capital of his dominions against a formidable invasion of the forces of the Mohammedan king of Vijayapoor, under a General of reputation, named *Rind Dhoola Khan*, who besieged Seringapatam; and having effected a practicable breach, made a general assault, in which he was repulsed with great slaughter; and not only compelled to raise the siege, but harassed in his retreat by successive attacks, in which the Raja obtained considerable booty.

After a number of conquests, which will be stated in the usual manner, Canterava Narsa Raj returned in 1654 to Seringapatam, where he instituted a deliberate inquiry into the condition of all his dependents, and subjects of every description. It was his first object to reduce to entire subjection the remnant of refractory Poligars and Wadeyars which still existed: and it may be inferred that he assumed the direct government of the whole of his dominions, from the farther measures which he is recorded to have pursued. He made a detailed and particular scrutiny into the condition of the *gouds*, or heads of villages, and principal farmers throughout his dominions, whom he had found to be the most turbulent of all his subjects: and ingeniously attributing their refractory disposition to a purse-proud arrogance, arising from the excessive accumulation of wealth, he determined to apply a very summary and direct remedy, by seizing at once on the supposed source of the evil.

He accordingly levied on the whole of this description of persons such contributions as, according to the manuscripts, left them only a sufficient capital for the uses of agriculture, and nothing for the purposes of commotion: it does not, however, appear that he ventured to augment the fixed assessment of the Ryots.

He improved and enlarged the fortifications of Seringapatam; and being enriched by his various foreign conquests and domestic plunder, supplied

supplied it with provisions and military stores, in a style of complete equipment which had hitherto been unknown.

‘ He was the first Raja of Mysoor who established a mint. The cantyrai hoons * and fanams, called after his name, continued to be the sole national coin until the Mohammedan usurpation ; and at this time form a considerable portion of the currency of the country.

‘ He is also noted as the author of a new and more respectful etiquette at his court, and for having first celebrated with suitable splendour the feast of the Maha-noumi †, or Dessara ; for having pre-
sented-

* * The coin which Europeans call a *Pagoda*.’

‘ † Maha-Noumi, the Great Ninth, the feast being celebrated on the 9th day of the increasing moon ; it is the supposed anniversary of a great event in the history of the celebrated Pandoos. The feast is kept with a creditable degree of splendour by the present Raja of Mysoor, and athletic contests and various sports are exhibited before him during nine successive days. Mysoor, I believe, is the only country in the south of India in which the institution of the *athletæ* (Jetti) has been preserved on its ancient footing. These persons constitute a distinct cast, trained from their infancy in daily exercises for the express purpose of these exhibitions ; and perhaps the whole world does not produce more perfect forms than those which are exhibited at these interesting but cruel sports. The combatants, clad in a single garment of light orange-coloured drawers, extending half-way down the thigh, have their right hand furnished with a weapon, which, for want of a more appropriate term, we shall name a *cæstus*, although different from the Roman instrument of that name. It is composed of buffalo horn, fitted to the hand, and pointed with four knobs, resembling very sharp knuckles, and corresponding to their situation, with a fifth of greater prominence, at the end nearest the little finger, and at right angles with the other four. The instrument, properly placed, would enable a man of ordinary strength to cleave open the head of his adversary at a blow : but the fingers being introduced through the weapon, it is fastened across them at an equal distance between the first and second lower joints, in a situation, it will be observed, which does not admit of attempting a severe blow, without the risk of dislocating the first joints of all the fingers.

‘ Thus armed, and adorned with garlands of flowers, the successive pairs of combatants, previously matched by the masters of the feast, are led into the arena ; their names and abodes are proclaimed ; and after making their prostrations, first to the Raja seated on his ivory throne, in a balcony which overlooks the arena, and then to the ladies behind which the ladies of the court are seated, they proceed to the combat, first divesting themselves of the garlands, and strewing the flowers gracefully over the arena.

‘ The combat is a mixture of wrestling and boxing, if the latter may be so named : the head is the exclusive object permitted to be struck. The guards for defence, though skilful, are not numerous : the blows are mere cuts inflicted by the *cæstus* ; and before the end of the contest, both of the combatants may frequently be observed stream-

sented to the idol Sree Runga a crown of valuable jewels ; and for having established munificent endowments for the support of all the principal temples. He is of course the idol of his Bramin historians, whose system of ethics is not disturbed by any troublesome reflections on the simple transfer of property, by which the fruits of industry are transformed into pious plunder.

‘ It remains to detail the conquests of this reign.

‘ He descended the Caveripooram pass, and took Jambelly, and several other places depending on Goottee Moodelaree, of Caveripoorum.

‘ Took Humpapoor from Nersing Naick.

‘ Betadpoor from Nunjend Raj, Wadear of Coorg.

‘ Periapatam from Nunjend Raj, whose son, Veer Raj, fell in the defence of the place ; established there his own garrison, and carried off the plunder to Seringapatam.

‘ Curb-Culloor, and Miasummooder, from Bheirapa Naick.

‘ Arkulgoor, depending on Bullum.

‘ Coondgul from Kimpe Gour of Maagry.

‘ Rettingherry from Eitebal Row.

‘ Veerabuddra Droog, Kingeri Cotta, Penagra, and Darampoory, depending on Vijeyapoor, and established his own authority in these four talooks. Fourteen years before this period the capital is besieged by the army of Vijeyapoor, the series of conquests begins now

ing with blood from the crown of the head down to the sand of the arena.

‘ The wrestling is truly admirable ; and the exertions of the combatants to disengage themselves from unfavourable positions, in which the head would be exposed to the *cæstus*, are, as mere specimens of activity, not exceeded by any corresponding exhibition on an European stage.

‘ When victory seems to have declared itself, or the contest is too severely maintained, the moderators in attendance on the Raja in the balcony make a signal for its cessation, by throwing down turbans and robes, to be presented to the combatants, who before retiring repeat their prostrations to the Raja and the lattices.

‘ A wistful look towards the balcony is the usual symptom of acknowledged inferiority, or of being, in the phrase of English pugilists, *not game* : and the victor frequently goes off the arena in four or five *somersets*, to denote that he retires fresh from the contest. A pair of fresh combatants is introduced with the same forms, and of such pairs about two hundred are exhibited during the nine days of the great festival.

‘ The Jetty of Mysoor are divided into five classes, and the ordinary prize of victory is promotion to a higher class. There are distinct rewards for those of the first class, and in their old age they are promoted to be masters of the feast. During three years that I attended the Raja at this feast there was one champion who remained unmatched ; on the fourth a stripling offered to engage, and was merely permitted to spar with him, and on the fifth year this youth was victorious.’

to be reversed, and that once powerful monarchy, threatened from the north and undermined within, now verges towards its close.

‘ Took Dankanicotta from Eitebal Row, and carried a large booty from thence to Seringapatam.

‘ Descended the Gujjelhutty pass, took *Denaikancotta*, Sattimungul, and other places from Vencatadry Naick, brother of the Raja of Madura *, and brought home an immense booty; he also took many talooks from *Veerapa, Naick of Madura*.

‘ Took Oossoor from *Chender Senker*, and obtained a valuable booty.

‘ In the same year he engaged the army of Kempe-Goud of Maagry at Yelavanca, gained a complete victory, with a large booty, pursued the fugitives to Maagry, and levied a contribution on this powerful Goud, now risen to the rank of Raja.’

* Nagana Naid, described to be head of the bullock department of Acheta Deva Rayeel of Vijayanuggur, founded the dynasty of the Naicks of Madura about the year 1532, with the aid of a colony of Telingas, which seems to have been planted in that country some time before by the government of Vijayanuggur. The persons known by the general designation of southern Poligars, who have so often resisted the authority of the English government, are the descendants of these foreigners, and preserve the language of their ancestors distinct from that of the aborigines; although the Tamul is so generally spoken by them all as to render the existence of a separate language (now verging to extinction) not very obvious to common observation. The fact is known to me not only from personal communication, but from several domestic memoirs preserved in the Mackenzie collection. I believe that the only genuine Tamul of any consequence concerned in the rebellion of 1800-2 was *Chenna Murdoo*, who, from the mean situation of dog-boy, had supplanted the Polygar, properly the Waddeyar, his master, and usurped the government. The most daring of these Poligars are of the *Totier* cast, among whom may be observed the singular and economical custom which is general throughout Coorg, and may be traced in several other countries from Tibet to Cape Comorin, of having but one wife for a family of several brothers. The elder brother is first married, and the lady is regularly asked whether she consents to be also the spouse of the younger brothers. When the means of the family enable them to afford another wife, the second and successively the other brothers marry, and their spouses are equally accommodating. This custom is traced by tradition to the five sons of Pandoo, the heroes of the Mahabarut. During their expulsion from the government their sister Draupeda went to seek and comfort them in the forests where they secreted themselves. The brother who first met her wrote to his mother in these words: “I have found a treasure, what shall I do with it?” “Share it with your brethren, and enjoy it equally,” was the answer: she accordingly became their common wife; and in Hindoo poetry is frequently distinguished by an epithet signifying, “adorned with five nuptial bands.”

Chapter III. gives a general retrospect of the affairs of Dekkan from 1564 to 1677. The rise of an Abyssinian, Mallick Amber, who resisted the Mogul arms and attained sovereign power, forms a remarkable anecdote. The eloquent prophecies, which were hired to prepare and announce, and which were interpreted to have been fulfilled by the accession and reign of Sevajee, exhibit a curious feature of the literature, or superstition, of the country, which the philosopher will not fail to apply in the explanation of older fictitious oracles. The history of Sevajee, whose original revolt must have been secretly favoured by Aurungzebe, is altogether the most interesting portion of this subdivision.

The fourth chapter delineates the period from 1672 to 1704. The character of Aurungzebe is reviewed with critical severity; and his false policy is censured on grounds which have escaped former historians. A map, exhibiting Mysoor according to its geographic and political distribution in 1704, illustrates this section.—The fifth chapter, as it is called, is a dissertation on the landed property of India, which ought rather to have formed a part of a Preface, or of an Appendix, than of the work itself. The author places the proof of property in the right of alienation. He examines learnedly the several claims of the sovereign to one-sixth, of the church to one-twelfth, and of the proprietor to one-fourth of the gross produce of the soil; and he rejects the system which attributes to the zemindar (or authorized collector of these tythes in kind) any right of proprietorship. We are gratified to find the opinions already advanced by us in 1794 (*M. R.* Vol. xv. *N. S.* p. 185.) on this subject, when the topic was new in Europe, so learnedly and decisively corroborated.—Mr. Thomas Law introduced the Moccurey system: but Lord William Bentinck had the merit of first drawing the course of government back towards the road of justice in 1805. The error of viewing Hindoo law through the medium of Mohammedan institutions grew out of the too exclusive study of the Persian language, which was alone fashionable during the former generation of oriental colonists.

Chapter VI. also is rather made up of statistical than of historical contents. It examines the changes introduced by Chick Deo Raj into the condition of the land-holders; and it includes a survey of several geographic revolutions, which varied the names and boundaries of the shires of Mysoor. Much information concerning the taxation of Hindoostan is compressed into a note at p. 204.

In the VIIth chapter, are detailed the events which happened between the years 1704 and 1751. Cauty Reva Raj,

though born deaf and dumb, succeeded to his father's throne, kept it during his life, and bequeathed it to his son Dud Kishen Raj. This circumstance marks a high degree of order, and of respect for the principle of inheritance.—The rise of Hyder is then related; and some additional particulars are given of those military transactions which Orme had told so well, and which display so eminently the courage and statesmanship of Captain (afterward Lord) Clive.

The period from 1751 to 1754 fills the eighth chapter. Until this time, only match-lock-guns were used in Mysoor; and the introduction of modern muskets is ascribed to a French drill-serjeant, whom the oriental historians marvellously describe as arriving at the Rajah's palace, and communicating a talisman by which five hundred muskets were discharged at once, on repeating certain magical words; it being ascertained by previous inspection, that not one of the five hundred men was provided with a match. The note at p.308 gives a painful picture of the habitual insecurity of the Dekkan:

‘ Illustrations of the manners and immemorial habits of a people are sometimes unexpectedly derived from a careful attention to the elements or the structure of their language. On the approach of an hostile army, the unfortunate inhabitants of India bury under ground their most cumbrous effects, and each individual man, woman, and child above six years of age (the infant children being carried by their mothers), with a load of grain proportioned to their strength, issue from their beloved homes, and take the direction of a country (if such can be found) exempted from the miseries of war; sometimes of a strong fortress, but more generally of the most unfrequented hills and woods, where they prolong a miserable existence until the departure of the enemy; and if this should be protracted beyond the time for which they have provided food, a large portion necessarily dies of hunger.

‘ The people of a district thus deserting their homes are called the *Wulsa* of the district. A state of habitual misery, involving precautions against incessant war, and un pitying depredations of so peculiar a description as to require in any of the languages of Europe a long circumlocution, is expressed in *all the languages of Deccan and the south of India* by a single word.

‘ No proofs can be accumulated from the most profound research, which shall describe the immemorial condition of the people of India with more authentic precision than this single word.

‘ It is a proud distinction that the *Wulsa* never departs on the approach of a British army when unaccompanied by Indian allies.’

Some minute and curious corrections of Orme occur at pp. 285 and 325: but to his general accuracy a liberal tribute of applause is given at p.335.

The ninth chapter continues the history of Hyder from 1754 to 1758. It is stated that he could neither read nor write, but

but that he could go through complex arithmetical calculations with remarkable accuracy and quickness.—The tenth chapter extends from 1758 to 1760, and explains the influence of a French agent, M. Bussy, over the affairs of Mysoor, though he was not the equal of his predecessor Dupleix.—Chap. XI. bestows high praise on the character of Colonel (afterward Sir Eyre) Coote. It also gives an interesting narrative of the dangers and escape of Hyder from the loyal treachery of Kundé Row, of his dexterous dissimulation, and subsequent vengeance. These anecdotes are entirely in the spirit of Asiatic history, and are wholly unparalleled in European incident.—The twelfth and concluding chapter continues the adventurous biography of Hyder, until the peace of Paris in 1763; or rather until the knowledge of that peace in Hindoostan had there terminated the conflict between the native powers, which grew out of French and English hostility.

Colonel Wilks announces for the subject of his ensuing volumes the history of British Hindoostan from 1765 to 1799. May his health be such as to favour the execution of this useful and important task! It is the ignorance of Europe which ascribes an injurious tendency to the progress of British influence in Hindoostan. History will dispel that ignorance, and reconcile philanthropy to the successful efforts of our ambition.

In the Appendix, at p. 492, it is stated that the word *Pagoda* is unknown to the Hindoos, and is never applied by them either as the name of a *gold coin*, or as the name of an *Indian temple*. Gold coins are called *Hoons*, from the Canarese name for gold. The Persian compound *But-kedda*, signifying *idol-temple*, has perhaps been corrupted by the French travellers into *pagode*.

No. III. of the Appendix is an eloquent and well-reasoned exhortation, which aims at dissuading the government from patronizing that fanatical spirit of proselytism, which the more credulous, irrational, and ignorant sectaries of Great Britain have lately exhibited; and which is unfortunately so deeply rooted in a monied portion of the commercial world, as to have influenced the election of Directors at the India-house. The true method of founding the Christian religion in Hindoostan is to remove all impediments to the immediate emigration and settlement there of British colonists. Young merchants, when allowed to go, will speedily plant themselves in all the seaports, will attach themselves to native women, and educate their offspring in Christian notions. After a considerable population of these Christians, related through the one parent to Hindoo families, shall have grown up, those prejudices will be much softened, which, if rashly irritated now, may occasion Sicilian vespers, and expose to *sicarious* destruction every British

British resident. The religion of Hindoostan is apparently more favourable to the happiness and enjoyments of natives of a warm climate, than the austere Protestantism of the northern Europeans. It is more intimately connected also with the civil code, which it has been agreed to respect, than a new system would be which necessarily innovates in the whole constitution of the oriental laws respecting marriage, divorce, and bastardy. The Jewish scriptures allot one-tenth, the Hindoo scriptures but one twelfth, of the gross produce of the soil to the church; and the sovereign's share, and the whole tenure of landed property, must be altered, if our sacred books acquired among the Hindoos a sacred value. The sending of missionaries may be defensible among nations which cannot read: but all oral instruction may safely be let alone among a people so well schooled as the Hindoos. They can read our Bible, and infer from it a religion for themselves, which might in many respects differ from our own. Perhaps the friends of pure religion in Calcutta will one day combine to send missionaries hither, for the purpose of recalling us to the safe path!

In the observations which follow on the civil code, the author applauds the humanity of the Hindoo laws, which reject imprisonment for debt, which punish forgery by cutting off the right thumb, which include under the name *Panchaïet* a trial by jury, and which have educated the people to a degree of probity in the intercourse of lending and borrowing (see p. 502.) that is not equalled in Great Britain. He vindicates the expediency of putting in activity their antient police, and of supporting their admirable institution of village-officers, which, from close inspection and observation, is pronounced to be superior to the British substitute.

The Appendix No. IV. gives an account of the important sect of Jungum priests; who, by their contempt for external ceremonies, and by their rejection of metempsychosis in favor of the doctrine of the soul's final ascent to the heaven of God, approximate most to European opinions. They consider, however, the Lingum, in its obscenest form, as the fittest emblem of the creative power; and they accordingly wear it suspended from the neck, inclosed in a silver or a copper shrine, as a portable or personal God. It is a dogma of general notoriety that, if a Jungum has the misfortune to lose his personal God, he ought not to survive that evil:

‘*Poornia*, the present minister of Mysoor, relates an incident of a *Ling-ayet* friend of his who had unhappily lost his portable God, and came to take a last farewell. The Indians, like more enlightened nations, readily laugh at the absurdities of every sect but their own, and *Poornia* gave him better counsel. It is a part of the ceremonial.

monial preceding the sacrifice of the individual, that the principal persons of the sect should assemble on the bank of some holy stream, and placing in a basket the lingam images of the whole assembly, purify them in the sacred waters. The destined victim, in conformity to the advice of his friend, suddenly seized the basket and overturned its contents into the rapid Caveri. Now, my friends, said he, we are on equal terms: let us prepare to die together. The discussion terminated according to expectation. The whole party took an oath of inviolable secrecy, and each privately provided himself with a new image of the lingam.

This instructive work is intitled to much public attention, gratitude, and approbation. From documents hitherto unexplored, it brings into circulation many important facts concerning the history of Mysoor during the last two centuries, and contributes by curious registers and researches to our statistical knowledge of this newly united portion of the British Empire. If concerning earlier ages the relation is somewhat meagre, the details thicken as it approaches our own times; so that the memory is stocked with successive particulars, in the degree in which they interest the practical administration. The narrative has the increasing proportions of a cone; it begins with epitome, and ends with an all-embracing chronicle. The language is natural and correct: rarely, though sometimes, ambitious and eloquent. The tone of sentiment is liberally tolerant, inclining more to panegyric than censorious criticism; and the reflections interspersed are racy, penetrating, and statesman-like.—A large handsome map of the Mysoor dominions is prefixed.

ART. II. *Réponse du Général Sarrazin, &c. i. e.* General Sarrazin's Answer to the Report made to Bonaparte in regard to him by General Clarke, Minister at War. 8vo. pp. 28. London 1810.

ART. III. *Confession du Général Bonaparte, &c. i. e.* Bonaparte's Confessions to Abbé Maury, &c. &c. dedicated to General Kleber by General Sarrazin, formerly Head of the Staff to General Bernadotte in Germany and Italy. 8vo. pp. 306. Egerton. •

OF the former of these productions, it will not be necessary for us to take much notice, its contents having been fully communicated to the public by the news-papers immediately on its appearance. The latter is less generally known, and was presented under so extraordinary a title, that the author needed not to be surprized on finding that English readers, who are not so readily captivated with the sound of words as his country-

countrymen, have received it with a qualified portion of faith. In addition to the singularity of the title, Monsieur Sarrazin has favoured us with an equally singular dedication; having inscribed his book not to the memory of General Kleber, but to that distinguished officer himself, as if military men in the other world were not only spectators of the actions but readers of the lucubrations of those whose lot it is to follow them in the practice of their stormy profession. After having avowed 'a most profound respect for *all* institutions divine and human,' General Sarrazin assures us that, in adopting the plan of Confessions for the purpose of unmasking Bonaparte, he was actuated by an anxious wish to see his late master carry into execution the penitential method which he has suggested, and desist at last from proving himself the scourge of humanity. The book consists of three parts. 1. A supposed conversation between His Corsican Majesty and his confessor, Abbé Maury. 2. A conversation between General Berthier and the same clerical personage; and 3dly, Biographical notices of Berthier, Bonaparte, and Kleber. The two former contain a summary of the various charges against Napoleon from the beginning of his career; such as his participation in the atrocities at Toulon in 1793,—his cruelty at Paris on the 13th Vendémiaire,—his habits of bribing an enemy's officers,—his intrigues in foreign courts,—the murder of Pichegru by Savary, &c. The biographical part consists of a series of military anecdotes.

Though we are disposed to place considerable faith in several of M. Sarrazin's assertions, and though the body of his work exhibits fewer inconsistencies than were to be expected from his odd outset, it is proper to remember that this vigorous assailant of Bonaparte is a disappointed man. He has been in the French military service since the year 1792, and would have borne the rank of General of Division long ago, had it not been for broils with his colleagues, and particularly with Murat, in 1801, when having failed in the first of a soldier's duties, that of obeying his superior officers, he was degraded, and remained unemployed till his services were accepted for St. Domingo. Although constantly employed since that time, and engaged in several duties which appeared likely to recommend him to the Imperial favour, he seems never to have succeeded in recovering the ground which he had lost; and after the nomination of Savary to the Ministry of Police, he considered it as high time to consult his safety in flight, being apprehensive, he tells us, that a protracted stay might have led in his case to no better fate than that which befell the Duke d'Eng-hien. He had read, he says, his sentence in the suspicious looks of the Emperor, during the review which took place in May 1810 at Boulogne.

M. Sarrazin's

M. Sarrazin's military experience having chiefly consisted in duties on the Staff of a division, we are to look in his observations for precision of detail rather than for an exposition of general views. Accordingly, we do not think that he is correct in his account of the campaign of 1805, in regard either to General Mack or to the battle of Austerlitz; while we are inclined to pay considerable attention to his report of local and particular circumstances.—Recent events have given English readers the highest interest in the estimate which Frenchmen form of their celebrated Marshal Soult; and General Sarrazin agrees with others of his countrymen in deeming him the first of their commanders after Bonaparte.

‘He is not inferior (says M. Sarrazin, p.169.) to Masséna either in bravery or in firmness, and to these qualities he joins consummate artifice. No weak part in an enemy's position can escape his penetrating eye. I am disposed to regard Soult as discontented with Bonaparte, and likely to seize any favourable opportunity that might offer for rearing the standard of revolt. His passage of the Sierra Morena was a very brilliant affair, and Bonaparte is probably not solicitous to give this distinguished officer many opportunities of approaching to that high reputation which he wishes to consider as exclusively his own.’

In another passage, M. Sarrazin represents Berthier as expressing his opinion on the affairs of Spain and Portugal in a manner which is curious, because this book was composed before Masséna advanced into the latter country :

“As soon (says Berthier, p.166.) as I was apprized of the Emperor's project of placing his brother Joseph on the throne of Charles IV., I mentioned it to Talleyrand, who was equally surprized and afflicted. He gave me very strong reasons against it, which the result has fully justified : but, like an able courtier, he assumed at first to the Emperor the appearance of approving it. He pronounced it highly adapted to the system; *if postponed*, predicting that its execution at present would lead to an Austrian war within the year. The Emperor turned his back on him, and said, “You seem to have forgotten Ulm and Austerlitz. Had Austria intended war, she would have attacked me after the battle of Eylau.” Talleyrand, who is cool in the highest degree, let the ebullition pass over, and on Bonaparte becoming calm, he rejoined that “he felt it his duty to express to His Majesty his opinion, in support of which he intreated His Majesty to recollect the arduous conflicts of Marengo and Hohenlinden.” This was going too far for Bonaparte's temper; and from that time forwards Talleyrand was out of favour.—We were very far from expecting so obstinate a resistance in Spain. Bonaparte, flushed with the conquest of the Continent, treated with ridicule the reports made to him of the energy of the Castilians, of their attachment to their royal family, and their inveterate hatred to Frenchmen. Our first reverses were imputed to the weakness of
Dupont

and our other officers : but when Bonaparte himself came into Spain, he discovered that he had not to contend with Italians or Vendéans. He found in the Spanish patriots the fanaticism of the Mameluke and the art of the Arab. A French soldier retiring to rest in a Spanish house loses his life either by poison or by assassination : he is buried in a cellar or in a garden ; and the act being confessed to a priest, the perpetrator is told that it is meritorious, and will open to him the gates of paradise. The monks are all-powerful, and stir up insurrection with a cross in one hand, a sabre in the other, and epaulettes on their sacred habit.

“ We have endeavoured to sow distrust between the Spaniards and the English, and to persuade the former that the French are their natural friends and allies : but we have preached in a wilderness, in respect both to them and the Portuguese. When Massena, after having taken Almeida, proceeds on his march to the interior of Portugal, his columns will be harassed by swarms of insurgents. To keep up his communication with Spain, he will find it necessary to leave behind him strong detachments, which will weaken his main body. The English General, yielding to our superiority in regular troops, will entrench himself in the strong ground on the right of the Tagus ; and it is even to be feared, if he receives reinforcements, *that he may resume the offensive*, which would oblige the French army to fall back on their supplies. Such is the mode of warfare which we may expect in Portugal ; our communications being interrupted as they are in Spain, where our convoys are almost always annoyed and often captured by the *Guerillas*.”

After this statement of Berthier's supposed opinion on the state of Spain, we shall give, in a few words, Sarrazin's report of that officer's military talents, followed by some particulars at greater length relative to Bonaparte.

‘ Berthier is a man of parts, and well acquainted with the principles of war, but he has neither a steady nor an accurate *coup d'œil*. His activity is surprizing, not inferior even to that of Bonaparte : but he is no General, having never commanded even a single regiment in the presence of an enemy. His talents are those of the department of the Staff, and are most conspicuous in the conception and development of the orders of a Commander in Chief ; of which, moreover, he is not slow in superintending the execution.

‘ In regard to Bonaparte's manner, a great change took place after he was made Emperor. From that time forwards, ministers, marshals, and foreign ambassadors were all obliged to dance attendance in the antichamber. On the military parades, he desisted from the practice of returning the salute to the Generals and the colours, a form which the great Frederic kept up to the last. The oath from the public officers, of fidelity to him in his new capacity of Emperor, was administered with great pomp. He received it with all imaginable stateliness, and deigned to smile only after the ceremony was performed. If we form an estimate of his character with an equal distrust of the injustice of his enemies and the blind admiration of his

friends, we shall pronounce him to be highly studious, and possessed of an excellent intellect and memory. He is a great physiognomist, and expresses himself in writing with much correctness. As to courage, he has enough to be respectable and to carry his point : but he possesses not the intrepidity of Laanes, who could kindle the enthusiasm of soldiers to a pitch that would make them rush into the hottest fire. Nature has refused him this half physical quality, but she has made up for it by conferring on him the singular talent of knowing how to chuse men who are capable of executing his vast conceptions. His deportment during an action is not calculated to convey a striking impression to those about him : but his Generals make up for it, by riding forwards to the fire in front of the line, till the men call on them to retire. Bonaparte's great talent consists in planning a battle. Kleber, Moreau, and Frederic of Prussia, who were all inferior to him in that respect, were more brilliant during the action itself. Soult is equal, in my opinion, to Bonaparte in the plan, and to the others in the execution, but inferior in turning a victory to account. Bonaparte often takes advantage of woods and low grounds to conceal the station of his bodies of reserve. He never attacks without thoroughly reconnoitring the enemy's position, and he keeps back the reserve till a fault committed by the enemy renders its co-operation decisive. When our infantry marches forwards in columns, if we apprehend a charge of cavalry, we deploy into line a part only of the column, leaving a solid body on each flank. Every General of Division is free master of the movements of his corps, unless he has received special directions from the Marshal. On the morning of action, a distribution of wine and spirits is made to the troops ; and on the day after a victory, they are in motion as soon as it is light, in pursuit of the enemy. In short, as a commander, Bonaparte possesses the most eminent qualities, but he has the great fault of being easily prejudiced against deserving officers. Several meritorious Generals are unemployed, from a vague suspicion of their being either Jacobins or Bourbonites ; and a very prevailing dissatisfaction exists in the army, on account of the partialities which have been shown to the advantages of birth, of wealth, and of female influence. He has also the presumption of thinking that he is qualified to take the lead in every thing. He was accustomed to dispute on naval topics with Bruix, the only officer who had the courage to speak the truth to him. Enraged at finding the harbour of Boulogne so awkward for his craft to get out, Bonaparte fancied that there was a want of zeal in his naval officers, and ordered Bruix, one day when the barometer had fallen, to take the whole flotilla into the roads. The Admiral replied that it would be very hazardous to venture out in the face of a south-west wind which was likely to become very violent, and begged the Emperor to wait a few days. "Not one hour," rejoined Bonaparte ; "my will is that it be done instantly. My victories have been obtained by a single word, *forwards*, and I desire that henceforth it may be the watch-word in my navy." Bruix, in despair, obeyed, and took out the fleet, but it had not been three hours in the roads when a dreadful tempest arose. Several boats foundered, and others were wrecked. Admiral Lacrosse suc-

ceeded

ceeded in running into Etaples, after the most imminent danger. Bonaparte came down to the beach to assist in saving the shipwrecked, and remained there during a great part of the night, plunging often into the water to lay hold of the floating bodies. The loss of lives was computed at nine hundred : but Bonaparte no longer interfered with Bruix in his naval command.

The favourite General of Monsieur Sarrazin, on whose exploits he dwells with predilection and enthusiasm, is Kleber. Though his zeal is no doubt heightened by the remembrance of personal intimacy and attachment, we are inclined, on the most sober examination, to form a high estimate of the merits of that commander. The rapid succession of military exploits, in late years, has taken off the public attention from the character of the leaders in the beginning of the revolutionary contest ; among whom Clairfait on the side of the Austrians, and Kleber on that of the French, deserve to occupy a distinguished rank. Kleber was second in command under Jourdan in the memorable campaign of 1796 ; and when we consider the incapacity of his chief, it is no exaggeration to pronounce that the French army twice owed its preservation to Kleber's exertions. In Egypt, also, and in Syria, his skill and gallantry were conspicuous.—He was born in Alsace, and was induced to enter at an early age into the Austrian service, from which he retired, discouraged by the slow prospect of promotion for a foreigner. Returning to his native place, he exercised for some time his father's profession of architect, till, with others, he was called into the field by the tumult of the Revolution. He distinguished himself on the Rhine as early as 1792, was made General of Brigade in the next year, and General of Division in 1794. The French army was then in a very rude state, but Kleber soon brought his men into discipline ; and on the occurrence of those checks which were then so frequently the lot of the republican forces, his troops always retreated in the greatest order, while other divisions were flying in confusion. He found time to study the principles of his profession, even in the bustle of camps, and no commander ever possessed more highly the talent of kindling the fire of the soldiery in the day of action. His tall stature, (above six feet,) his piercing look, and his sonorous voice, struck his men with admiration, and made them eager to follow wherever he chose to lead. The natural openness of his character soon rendered him disgusted with Bonaparte's duplicity ; and most of our readers will recollect the warmth with which he expressed himself in his dispatches from Egypt, in regard to his commander's flight from his post. His assassination took place eight months after Bonaparte's usurpation of the Consulship ; and M. Sarrazin has no hesitation in attributing it to Menou, as the agent of the Corsican.

The interesting nature of General Sarrazin's military observations has led us into rather a longer notice of his book than we intended. — It is a pity that a man who is possessed of so much curious information should not have taken pains to communicate it to the world in a more authenticated shape. Unfortunately, he appears, like other Frenchmen, to have little notion of the nature of evidence, or of the necessity of building assertion on a reference to regular documents; and notwithstanding his habits of precision on the Staff, he appears to be little skilled in arrangement with regard to literary composition. Under such circumstances of irregularity, the cautious reader is greatly embarrassed to select the part that is intitled to belief, from that which must be condemned as the repetition of vague rumour. The greater portion of the book is probably of the former description: but the plan is so fantastic, and so unsuited to English ideas, that ill-natured critics might almost quote it against General Sarrazin, as an argument in support of the formidable accusation that he is sometimes *non compos*, which has been advanced by Bonaparte, in revenge for the General's desertion of him.

ART. IV. *Poems*, by Miss Holford, Author of "Wallace, or the Fight of Falkirk." 8vo. pp. 117. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

THE spirited poem of Wallace, which we fairly commended and occasionally censured in our 62d Vol. p. 26, was addressed by its author to a female friend, who no doubt rejoiced in the honours which that composition so justly received; and as a participation in the pleasures of our friends is natural to good dispositions, so is sympathy with their misfortunes. In the same manner, then, that an antient poet addressed his dearest relative on similar occasions, Miss Holford must now address the friend in question;

————— "*me, nitidas Albana ferentem
Dona comas, sanctoque indutum Casaris auro,
Visceribus complexa tuis, sertisque dedisti
Oscula anhelæ meis: — tu, cum Capitolia nostra
Inficiata lyra, sævum, ingratumque dolebas,
Mecum victa, Jovem.*" —

In plainer language, we were lately very happy in adorning the brows of a young lady with a wreath of ivy, (*doctarum præmia frontium*,) and we must now reluctantly hang the cypress on her lyre; for if we do not bury it, so inharmoniously vocal

as it is at present, it will assuredly destroy the poetical reputation of its mistress.

We have so often had occasion to lament the ungracefulness of a short flight, [that we may vary our metaphors,] taken by those very wings which had previously carried their owner to a greater distance with comparative strength and dignity, that we cannot be surprized at the present failure. The contrast of character in Wallace, the clearness and the force of the narrative, and the imagination so brightly displayed in many passages, atoned for much awkwardness in the versification, and for numerous faults in the language:—but in these minor poems we discover little fancy that is not plagiarism, and still less expression that is at once correct and original. We shall be contented with quoting a few specimens to prove our assertions; and we hope to warn the fair writer against such errors in any future composition, which we may yet welcome from her pen.

The dedicatory address to Miss Holford's mother has nothing but filial affection to recommend it.

'Where on the vivid flower no canker preys,
That decks the bank of *glancing Hippocrene*,
Where Fancy's rule the laughing realm obeys,' &c. &c.

is very stale common-place indeed.

'Lo! at thy feet, a varied garland laid,
Of blossoms pluck'd for thee, from Fancy's flowery glade,'

promises what the volume by no means performs.

'The Poet's Fate' rings the old changes on Otway, Chatterton, &c. and not in a manner that is calculated to add new interest to a subject which has been long exhausted, however originally adapted to poetry. The following lines are perhaps the best:

'Oh! ever following in the Muse's rear,
Of perish'd hopes a spectre band is seen!
There Melancholy drops the frequent tear;
There Memory raves of joys that once have been;
There keen-ey'd want assails with famish'd cry—
Who clanks the sounding chain?—'Tis wild Insanity!'

We cannot specify the several trifles of which this publication is composed:—"*sunt quedam mediocria — sunt mala plura*:" but nothing, we think, is positively good. 'Lady Emmeline' is a poor imitation of the Tales of Wonder, as far as Mr. Lewis's ballads characterize that *mélange*. 'The Ode to Time,' inscribed to Miss Seward, is more tolerable. In the Imitation of Beattie's Minstrel, how could Miss Holford admit such a line as

'Grim Satire *him* appals with frequent cry;—

or, in the verses to 'Dawn,' such a stanza as

'And as with soothing, murmuring swell,
Thy whispering wave is lightly flowing,
List lingering to the tuneful shell
Its sweet responsive meed bestowing.'

Still more doleful is the praise of the 'Young Roscius;'

'And may it be that sounds so widely felt
Can from the lisping tongue of childhood flow?
Oh! Genius! canst thou bid a nation melt
In anguish o'er an infant's mimic woe?'

Oh! Genius! indeed.

Can it be the same writer, who so admirably described the Fight of Falkirk, and who indites the following namby-pamby address to the Butterfly?

'Oh! why does my approach alarm thee,
Thou pretty, fluttering, fragile thing?
I do not bear the heart to harm thee,
Then fearless rest thy speckled wing.'

"Uncle Toby and the Blue Bottle Fly" would be a good companion to this piece of sentimentality.

We do not approve of the expression, 'Care's ugliest nightmare,' as applied to interest; and we could quote many other objectionable phrases: but we hasten to conclude our unwelcome task. The two worst poems in the book are those which are intitled 'A Ballad,' and 'Lady Isabel.' The latter is childishness personified. It consists of seven short quatrains, each concluding with 'Bless thee, Lady Isabel!'; except the last, which concludes with 'Bless thee, Sister Isabel!'

In some lines called 'Carisbrooke,' a few touches of the pathetic occur. — Charles the First, in his immurement at this prison, is thus described:

'Twas the dull and dusky twilight hour,
When close to his window grate,
Catching the breath of an April show'r,
The captive Sovereign sate;
A tear glisten'd bright in Stuart's eye
And his cheek was deadly pale;
And his bosom answer'd every sigh
Heav'd by the evening gale,
His cheek was pale, and his princely eye
Was fill'd with memory's tears,
As he ponder'd on the destiny
Which flatter'd his early years;
He thought on the friends for him who died,
Yet was not that pang the worst;

He thought on friends who had left his side,
And felt as his heart would burst!

* But he shudder'd as in looking back
On the days for ever lost,
Reflection 'mid the shadowy track
Met Strafford's headless Ghost!

* What armour can that breast defend
From Memory's homestruck blows?
The shade of one deserted friend
Outfrowns a thousand foes.*

This is tolerably well: but much better would it have been without the second stanza, and in a more flowing rhythm, Miss H., as we have before observed, has a *cadence* of her own: — let her take care that it is not literally a *fall*.

ART. V. *The Prose Works of John Milton*; containing his principal political and ecclesiastical Pieces, with new Translations, and an Introduction. By George Burnett, late of Baliol College, Oxford. 12mo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards. Miller, Chancery-lane. 1809.

IT has happened to us to learn, from private authority, that the accomplished editor of these volumes was educated at Oxford for the church of England; but that, having embraced Unitarian opinions, he declined ordination, and went to assist in a school at Bristol, which Mr. Estlin there superintended. Under that Gentleman's protection, he qualified himself to officiate as a dissenting minister, and accepted an invitation to Yarmouth, where he preached several years. Either a progress of opinion, or an ambitious taste, afterward induced him to relinquish the clerical for the medical profession, which he studied during two years at Edinburgh. He then attached himself as surgeon to a regiment of militia: but his bodily health became unequal to the fatigue to which in this situation he was exposed; and he eventually took lodgings near London, for the purpose of writing for the booksellers. As an author by profession, his efforts were mostly concealed in periodical publications: but his "*Specimens of the older English Prose-writers*,"* were selected with taste, and received with welcome. The success of that work induced him to undertake the not dissimilar labour, of which the result is now before us. We are sorry to find, however, that Mr. Burnett is no longer living to watch its fortunes in the republic of letters. A consumptive disease, aggravated perhaps by privations resulting

* See Rev, Vol. lv. N. S. p. 41.

from pecuniary difficulties, baffled latterly his intentions of application, and his medical skill.

Of the work itself a clear account is given in Mr. Burnett's preface; which, as well as the biographic introduction, is written with unaffected meekness* :

‘ The idea of this publication might probably not have been conceived, but for a hint by a reviewer of the late edition of Milton's Prose Works. The precise words I cannot quote, as I have not the review by me, and as it is long since I read them; but the idea suggested was, to convert the prose works also of our great poet into a popular classic, by selecting his best pieces, that is, his political writings, and giving extracts from the rest, and to print the whole in a smaller and cheaper form. Finding it advisable, from indisposition, to retire for a while to the country, and desirous of reading with attention the prose works of Milton, which I had not done before, but in part, I recollected also the hint I have alluded to, and resolved to proceed upon it.

‘ The chief of Milton's prose works may be referred to three general divisions, according as they relate, 1. To Ecclesiastical Law; 2. To Matrimonial Law; 3. To the Tenure of the Magistrate. Two short pieces only, in the present collection, are not strictly referable to either of these divisions: these are, *Of Education*, and *Arcopagitica*. All the pieces which come under either of the above general heads, respectively, I have thought it most commodious to arrange together, whatever the dates either of their composition or publication; so that they will now be read in succession, as so many books of the same treatise.

‘ The theological pieces, and those on divorce, have been considerably abridged; *Arcopagitica* a little; and *Iconoclastes* a good deal: the other pieces are entire; and the whole of the second volume is without any abridgment whatever. This volume contains the entire controversy of Milton with Salmasius and Morus, or More; a controversy, which, (to use Milton's own words) made “*All Europe ring from side to side.*” Of the quantity rejected from the pieces in the first volume I have spoken more particularly in the introduction.

‘ In a few instances, I have given an abstract of a page or two, to preserve the connection; and have, now and then, inserted an adverb, or conjunction, to connect passages distant in place. All such abstracts and insertions will be found enclosed in brackets.’

In our judgment, Mr. Burnett has executed with great propriety a most useful task. The prose of Milton, however beautiful and majestic, is somewhat scholastic and heavy; and it is an accommodation to the reader to be told where he may skip. Mr. B. has omitted precisely those passages which have

* A remarkable infelicity of expression, however, occurs in the Dedication; which causes not merely an equivocal, but a positive contradiction to the intended meaning; — ‘Milton, the least perhaps of all authors, stands in need of a Patron.’

now ceased to be interesting. The religious controversy, in defence of divorce, is considerably abridged : but the political controversy is preserved nearly entire. Thus a very cheap and comprehensive edition has been formed of what is most worthy of notice in our celebrated classic; and to be less than *familiar* with his beauties is not permitted to an Englishman. The writings of Milton constitute a rich treasury of diction grandly embellished, of thoughts nobly conceived, and of principles weightily argued. When, from distant ages and regions, he calls in the aid of those chosen minds with whom he held habitual converse, and adduces from the poets and sages of antiquity those moral maxims with which his works are studded, he seems to speak in the name and with the no longer mortal voice of the assembled wise and good in the elysium of the worthies. A daring pursuit of duty, a strong sense of justice, a love of the fair and right, the high consciousness of the vast superiority over rank and wealth which the gifts of genius and virtue possess,—such are the lofty sentiments which he is able and worthy to inculcate. We rise from his book, dilated as it were, and purified ; may it long form the manual of our youth and the guide of the patriot !

ART. VI, *Christina, the Maid of the South Seas* ; a Poem, By Mary Russell Mitford. 8vo. pp. 332. 10s. 6d. Boards, Rivingtons, &c. 1811.

THE mutiny on board the *Bounty* armed ship, in the South Seas, some years ago, and the desertion of the crew with the vessel, must be in the recollection of most of our readers : but they may not so generally have heard of the reported recent discovery of a small English colony, established by some of the mutineers on one of the numerous islands of those seas, called Pitcairn's Island. This discovery, corroborated indeed by some striking circumstances, rests on the authority of an American Captain, named Folger.—The extraordinary circumstance of an infant society, amounting to about thirty persons, acknowledging a runaway English sailor as their governor; all speaking English, and educated in a moral and religious manner ; and found, after an interval of eighteen years, (from 1790 to 1808) in an island of the Pacific Ocean ; however it may excite the cautious inquiry of the historian, affords a fair subject for poetry. Miss Mitford has taken it for the basis of her present volume, and on the whole has made successful use of her materials ; introducing two rival candidates for the hand of her heroine, in order to produce a pleasing little love-plot and

and denouement. The name of Captain Folger is changed to Seymour; and that of Smith, the only surviving mutineer of the *Bounty*, to Fitzallan. Christina is the daughter of Christian, the ringleader of the mutiny. He, it is said, committed suicide in a fit of remorse for his ingratitude to Captain Bligh.

As to the style of the composition, it is a close imitation of Mr. Scott's popular manner; partaking of most of his faults, and of many also of his beauties. If the critic be often offended by ungrammatical inaccuracies, (particularly by the constant omission of the article, definite and indefinite,) he is frequently pleased with the vivacity of the fair writer's descriptions, and with the touches of pathetic tenderness which are scattered over the story. As it is probable that a large portion of the readers of poetry will be induced to peruse the volume, we shall not offer them an analysis of that story; which is indeed too simple to require it. We have intimated enough respecting the characters, to excite an interest in their fate; and more would anticipate the reader's pleasure. He does not at present stand in need of any guiding thread, to conduct him through the usual labyrinth of design in tales of romance; and we are rather disposed to applaud Miss Mitford's taste, for engrafting so little on the record which forms the foundation of her poem. We shall, however, present some specimens of the manner in which she has executed her plan; beginning with the notice of passages which we consider to be greatly defective, and concluding with rather more favourable examples.

'The setting sun, with lurid ray,
Crimson'd the vast Pacific spray.' Canto 1st.

'The *Spray* of the vast *Pacific*' is as fine an instance of the Bathos, as any of those which are collected in Martinus Scriblerus.

'The bold Captain frown'd to see,
The lightning's fearful revelry.' Ibid.

Here we are again reminded of the "*brisk Lightning*" in the Rehearsal;—not to mention the "*bold Thunder*."

'The wreck of elemental world,
In dizzy sound the senses whirl'd.' Ibid.

This faulty rhyme occurs more than once in the volume; and the fair author will in vain quote Johnson's authority in his poem of London. "*Hurl'd*" would suit the passage to which we allude, as well as "*whirl'd*;" and we have often wondered that it was not so written:

"Such bribes the rapid Greek o'er Asia *hurl'd*,"
For such the steady Roman shook the world."

We

We profess ourselves unable to comprehend the following allusion, and conclude therefore that it must be truly sublime :

' Fair as those isles, which to the eyes
Of death-struck mariners arise,
Like visions of the phrenzied brain !
Or bubbles of the treacherous main !' Canto 1st.

Quere, *South-Sea Bubbles* ? The scene of the poem in some measure sanctions this hypothesis : but we are not clear that we have ascertained the meaning of the passage !

Out of numerous examples of the omission of the article, we shall cursorily mention a few :

———— ' o'er hut and rude morai
Wav'd lofty bough, and flexile spray.
Gleam'd silvery moon, and twinkling stan.' Ibid.

———— ' on mountain fire,
Rose, plantain, palm, and cocoa tree.' Ibid.

but still more objectionable is the awkward expression in the next couplet ;

' Rose the gay fig, whose wondrous branch,
Bow'd down to earth, fresh roots can launch ;'

or the ensuing :

— ' that blue eye, with sudden flash
Oft told of passion's youthful clash,
'Till pious tears the lightning quench'd,
And dew'd his locks by anguish *clench'd*.' Ibid.

This is the very agony of rhyming ; and we are sorry to be compelled to add, that every canto abounds with equally lame and incorrect expressions.—Miss Mitford must take more pains, and must more cautiously revise her works, before she can expect the unqualified meed of judicious approbation.

———— ' Sailor's soul
Loves not in lazy bay to roll,'

is the acmé of idleness, and indeed exhibits a combination of almost every fault of the ballad style.—Not less offensive is the following servile imitation ;

' How wondrous in that tranquil hour,
Seem'd that still form in fairy bower !
You might have thought some magic hand
Fix'd the fair statue on the strand,
Enchantress of that lovely land !
And tale, romance, and legend high
Press'd on the wanderer's fantasy.' Canto the 2d.

"The Lady of the Lake," and more of the same author's 'tale, romance, and legend high,' seem to have pressed on Miss Mitford's 'fantasy,' so closely as to leave no room in which her own imagination could expatiate. Christina's Song, however, which follows the description whence the above lines are extracted, is more fortunate than most of Mr. Scott's similar effusions : yet this is saying little for it ; since we suppose that the eagle-genius of the author in question *cannot descend* to the dove-like flight of a song-writer. Although Miss M. excels her usual prototype on this occasion, she has fallen into another imitation, equally injudicious. She has borrowed, for a moment, the limping cadence of Miss Holford ; and in that lady's scazon measures she clothes some pleasing and natural thoughts :

' O chilly and damp is the mossy tomb !
 And dark is the cheerless night !
 But sadder far is the mourner's gloom,
 Who wails o'er her lost delight !
 The maidens they deck'd thy grave with flowers,
 The death-dirge rang thro' the island bowers,
 But sighs and groans were all that I gave,
 And my tears alone bedewed thy grave.
 ' The flowers are wither'd, the garlands are gone,
 The dirge died away in the air ;
 And thou wert forgotten by all but one,
 Ere the wreath had faded there.
 They took me to dwell in the cot of the chief,
 They said to me, Calm thy restless grief !
 But her who is gone they cannot restore,
 And still as they chide, I weep the more.
 ' O mother ! my mother ! since thou art dead,
 What comfort have they to give !
 My only delight on earth is fled,
 And still must CHRISTINA live !
 Yet oft will I steal at midnight hour,
 To deck thy cold tomb with tear and flower,
 And when the rude storms of life are past,
 With thee I will find my home at last.'

This, as we premised, is pleasing and natural in point of conception : but, surely, the rhythm of the lines does not deserve the eulogy which the author herself bestows on them :

— ' in accents soft and clear
 As ever breath'd in mortal ear,
 In strains with silvery cadence fraught,
 From the pure spring of feeling caught,
 Seraphic strains, by nature given,
 Arose a daughter's woe to Heaven :—

but

but how original is this introduction !

“ In solemn cadence, soft and slow,
Arose a father's notes of woe !” *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*

To note the plagiarisms of this fair writer, ‘ from these pure springs of her feelings,’ would be as useless as invidious. We hope that we have said enough both to excite her industry in the task of revision when she writes again, and to restrain her petty larcenies from the property of Mr. Walter Scott. — We now turn to the more pleasing portion of our proposed criticisms, and offer to Miss Mitford that praise which we feel justified in conferring on her present composition. If it be not unmingled with censure, we trust that it will not, on reflection, prove less acceptable nor less encouraging to a writer who seems to be possessed of very improveable talents *.

The description of the natives crowding on board, when the *Bounty* arrived at Otaheite, appears to us happily imagined : but we except the *expression* of the simile in the first couplet :

‘ As bees that seek the heathery pride,
The natives climb the ship's tall side ;
Scarce could the crowded deck sustain
The pressure of the eager train,
Then names were chang'd in friendly form,
With welcome free and greeting warm :
What though upon the cheated ear,
Still vainly fell those accents clear ;
Yet the warm pressure of the hand,
The courteous voice, the gesture bland,
The dullest heart might understand.
Language unknown may mock the sense,
Thou need'st no tongue, Benevolence !’

The following little sketch of a *poetical love-scene* is agreeable enough, although some tincture of affectation is visible in the second compartment :

‘ Whence springs the joy, ye gentle lovers tell !
To hover round the mistress of your heart,
As if enchanted by some magic spell,
Of witch accurst, or merry fairy art,
To feed, for aye, your bosom's raging smart ?
Still at the hour, when all but lovers sleep,
Reckless 'tho' rivers, woods, or mountains part,
Still to the maiden's lov'd abode ye creep,
There, thro' the lingering night, for her dear sake to weep.

* For a former volume of poems by Miss M., see Rev. Vol. lxiii. N. S. p. 97. A new and much enlarged edition of that work has just appeared, of which we shall make farther mention.

‘ Such

- Such joy the Spanish cavalier oft feels,
 When to the lattic'd window of his fair,
 At midnight hour, with noiseless step, he steals,
 Content to breathe the love-perfumed air,
 That fans her cheek, and wantons in her hair,
 How sweetly then the tender serenade
 Tells of his love as her own beauty rare ;
 The whilst, half kind, half coy, the listening maid
 At times her veil'd form shows, at times is lost in shade.*

The lovely heroine of the poem 'essays,' in some immediately subsequent verses, to 'play upon the flute!'—an accomplishment which even Miss Mitford's recommendation cannot make us regard as lady-like or engaging.—It is in the description of the calm scenes of inanimate nature, as contrasted with the rude and tempestuous passions of the human heart, that Mr. Scott and his followers most excel. Some, indeed, of the latter have transcended their original in the touching admixture of moral feeling with the mute scenery of the world around us. The present writer thus describes the evening previous to the occurrence of a cruel assassination in Otaheite ;

- 'Twas on a summer's eve,—O ne'er
 Was eve so balmy, scene so fair !
 The setting sun with tranquil ray
 Gilt inland bowers, and ocean spray ;
 Hush'd was the whispering wave, no breeze
 'Woke the low murmuring of the trees ;
 The lovely scene cast o'er the sense
 Its own enchanting indolence,
 No longer sporting on the tide,
 The dolphin gleams in azure pride ;
 No longer from the mountain height,
 Peers the wild goat in rude affright ;
 No longer on the pebbly strand,
 The faithful dogs obsequious stand,
 Sporting with fond, yet cautious glee,
 With joyous infants, gay and free ;
 No longer sounds along the beach
 The baby laugh, the half-form'd speech.
- The happy children, tir'd of sport,
 Seek their sweet slumbers, mild and short ;
 Some round those dogs of generous race,
 Twine the small limbs and blooming face ;
 Some clinging to a mother's charms,
 Some cradled in a father's arms ;
 The parents watch'd, with tearful joy,
 Each rosy girl, each dark-hair'd boy ;
 But not a sigh, and not a word,

Not e'en a fond caress was heard ;
The very birds gay carols cease,
And man and nature seem'd at peace.'

We must observe to Miss M. that '*vails*' for *avails* is a vulgar abbreviation ; that '*beam*' is not synonymous with "eye ;" that '*aspiring flow'rets*' never '*rise sublime* ;' that '*Promethēan fire*' should be "*Promethēan fire* ;" that '*Robert Jeffery's Lament*' is in very bad taste ; and that the following passage is equally unjust and unpoetical :

' Oh ! never in *these* regions cold,
Where barter'd beauty yields to gold,
Where love's a shade, and vows an air,
Was seen a more reluctant fair :
Nor in the genial clime of Spain,
Where Hymen drags his firm-link'd chain
(Not fabulous, alas ! nor light !)
More jealous bridegroom e'er was *digit*,' &c.

We conclude our extracts and remarks with a better specimen of the fair writer's abilities ; which, as we have remarked, seem only to want due cultivation to render them distinguished :

' Oft, soaring on the wings of thought,
The bard the patriot's flame has caught ;
With force resistless, pour'd along
The rousing eloquence of song ;
Till, fir'd by brave and warlike speech,
Even "to the imminent deadly breach,"
Start from their sheaths a thousand swords
To prove the omnipotence of words.—
But who can wake the tuneful shell,
The pause of gratitude to tell ?
The tear-drop quivering in the eye,
The fond speech check'd by fonder sigh ;
The pressure of the hand, the blush
Where tenderest feelings kindling rush,
Emotion thrilling every sense,
Silence more blest than eloquence !
The generous heart's ennobling zeal,
Ah ! none can tell,—but all can feel !'

The beautiful common-place on the vanity of life in the First Canto, and the commencement of the Fourth Canto, may also be mentioned in proof of Miss M.'s powers of poetical composition ; and we would encourage her to write again in Spenser's stanza, or in the less complicated stanza of the Italians.—Any one of the graver measures, in a word, is better suited for an extended and serious poem than the line of eight feet ; a measure that, by the use to which Butler, Swift, and Gay have applied it,

it, has lost the little dignity which it could ever have possessed. Its extreme facility, indeed, deprives the writer of any uncommon merit.

ART. VII. *A Journey from Madras through the Countries of Mysore, Canara, and Malabar*, performed under the Orders of the Most Noble the Marquis Wellesley, Governor General of India, for the express Purpose of investigating the State of Agriculture, Arts, and Commerce; the Religion, Manners and Customs; the History Natural and Civil, and Antiquities; in the Dominions of the Rajah of Mysore, and the Countries acquired by the Honourable East India Company, in the late and former Wars from Tippoo Sultaun. By Francis Buchanan, M.D. F.R.S. and F.S.A. London, Fellow of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta; and in the Medical Service of the Honourable Company. Published under the Authority of the Directors of the East India Company. Illustrated by a Map and numerous other Engravings. 4to. pp. 1459. 6l. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c.

IF the acquisition of colonial territory be really of so much importance as modern statesmen would have us believe, it is surely of consequence that those who are intrusted with the government of those colonies, as well as the leaders of administration in the mother-country, should be intimately acquainted with the resources and capabilities of the acquired territory, and with the manners, customs, language, character, and institutions of its inhabitants. From the want of this essential information, it has often happened that distant colonies have been driven into revolt, by the ignorance or oppression of their governors; or have become a burden to the parent-state, because that state knew not how their capabilities might be called forth, or their resources employed to the best advantage. It was to be expected, therefore, that the sovereigns of modern times should be studious to explore the most remote corners of their empire, and should employ in these investigations men of learning, abilities, and enterprize. To this laudable state-policy we owe the instructive travels of Pallas, Barrow, Ellicot, and the volumes now before us*.

The extent and importance of the territory acquired by the East India Company, from the conquest and death of Tippoo Sultaun, induced Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-general, to employ Dr. Buchanan in a journey through the conquered

* Our readers will in course connect this article with that which commences our present Number, though we have somewhat broken the chain, to prevent its length from being wearisome.

territory, and the dominions immediately adjoining; and the objects of this survey are particularly explained in the introduction to the present work. The Doctor's inquiries were meant to extend throughout the dominions of the rajah of Mysore, the country acquired by the Company in the late war with Tippoo, and that part of Malabar which the Company had annexed to their own territories in the former war under Marquis Cornwallis. Agriculture was specified as the first and principal object of his attention; and he was required to obtain all possible information respecting the esculent vegetables used by the natives; the breeds of cattle, and their application in agriculture; the extent and value of the farms; the average price of labour, and mode of paying workmen; and to compare the general state of agriculture in Mysore with that of Bengal.

The natural productions of the country, especially such as are employed in arts, manufactures, commerce, and medicine, were appointed to form the next immediate objects of attention; and here the Doctor was particularly desired to investigate the cultivation, preparation, and uses of cotton, pepper, sandal wood, and cardamoms; the state of the mines, quarries, and mineral springs, with the mode of working the two former; the state of the manufactures, and the situation of the manufacturers; the climate and seasons of Mysore, with a comparative estimate of its salubrity and that of the Company's other possessions in the peninsula; the general condition of the inhabitants; the sects and tribes of which they are composed; with their laws, customs, personal traffic, weights and measures, exchange of money, and ordinary currency. He was also instructed to take every opportunity of collecting and transmitting to the Governor-general, specimens of whatever he might deem curious or important among the natural or artificial productions of the territories through which he passed.

It will hence be seen that the objects of the journey were sufficiently important, and that the investigation of so many circumstances must have been extremely laborious. Considering the extent of territory explored, and the short time (little more than a year) employed in the inquiry, Dr. Buchanan has collected a prodigious mass of information; — information which we doubt not will prove valuable and important to the civil and military officers who are occupied in maintaining the power of the mercantile sovereigns of India, though we imagine that it will not excite much interest among his countrymen at home. The method, according to which the materials of the work are arranged, viz.; that of a Journal, is well suited to excite the attention of general readers, and has often been

adopted with success by former travellers: but though this plan greatly facilitates the labour of an author, and, where the subjects that come under review are sufficiently interesting, tends to call forth and preserve curiosity, it has a slovenly appearance, and on subjects of scientific importance is perhaps the worst order that could be observed. In the present instance, we think, Dr. Buchanan has been peculiarly unfortunate in chusing this natural mode of arrangement. His publication would have been much more useful and instructive, and scarcely less amusing, had he classed the materials which he collected during his journey under distinct heads, corresponding to the circumstances mentioned in his instructions. In this way, by giving a comparative view of the state of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, of the natural productions, and of the situation and manners of the natives, in the several districts through which he passed, he would have presented his readers with a regular and connected digest; instead of obliging them to accompany him through three large quartos, gleaning by the way a scanty harvest of scattered fragments, and connecting them, as well as memory will allow, into an imperfect whole. We are told, indeed, that these imperfections are not to be ascribed so much to Dr. B., as to those gentlemen who were in possession of the manuscript, and directed its publication; and that it was the intention of the author to have abridged the work, and altered its arrangement; but that, as the printing of it had commenced before his arrival in England, and as his stay here was likely to be very short, he could not undertake such alterations, and was obliged to content himself with revising the manuscript.

Dr. B. set out from Madras in the end of April 1800, and, passing through the dominions of the Nabob of Arcot and the small territory of Bara Mahal, entered the Mysore country, and hastened to Seringapatam, where he arrived about the middle of May. This interesting capital forms the point whence his inquiries begin; and the account which he has given of the present state and appearance of the city, with the circumstances attending its fall, constitutes one of the most pleasing parts of his work. After having described the situation and appearance of Seringapatam, he takes occasion to narrate its capture and the fall of Tippoo, of whose family, government, and character, he has afforded us some interesting anecdotes:

* The palace of the Sultan at Seringapatam is a very large building, surrounded by a massy and very lofty wall of stone and mud, and outwardly is of a very mean appearance. There were in it, however, some handsome apartments, which have been converted into barracks; but the troops are very ill lodged, from the want of
ventilation

ventilation common in all native buildings. The private apartments of Tippoo formed a square, in one side of which were the rooms that he himself used. The other three sides of the square were occupied by warehouses, in which he had deposited a vast variety of goods; for he acted not only as a prince, but also as a merchant.

These goods were occasionally distributed among the Amildars, or governors of provinces, with orders to sell them, on the Sultan's account, at a price far above their real value; which was done by forcing a share of them upon every man in proportion to his supposed wealth. This was one of the grand sources of oppression, speculation, and defalcation of revenue. The friends, or wealthy corruptors of the Amildars, were excused from taking a large share of the goods; while the remainder was forced upon poor wretches, whose whole means, when torn from them, were inadequate to the estimated value of the goods; and the outstanding balances on this account were always large.

The three sides of the square formerly used as warehouses, are now occupied by the five younger sons of Tippoo, who have not yet been removed to Vellore. They are well looking boys, and are permitted to ride and exercise themselves in the square, when they are desirous so to do; they are also allowed to view the parade, and to hear the bands of music belonging to the troops in garrison.

The apartment most commonly used by Tippoo was a large lofty hall, open in front after the Mussulman fashion, and on the other three sides entirely shut up from ventilation. In this he was wont to sit, and write much; for he was a wonderful projector; and was constantly forming new systems for the management of his dominions, which, however, he wanted perseverance to carry into execution. That he conceived himself to be acting for the good of his subjects, I have no doubt, and he certainly believed himself endowed with great qualities for the management of civil affairs, as he was at the pains of writing a book on the subject, for the instruction of all succeeding princes; his talents in this line, however, were certainly very deficient. He paid no attention to the religious prejudices of the greater part of his subjects, but every where wantonly destroyed their temples, and gloried in having forced many thousands of them to adopt the Mussulman faith. He never continued long on the same plan, so that his government was a constant succession of new arrangements. Although his aversion of Europeans did not prevent him from imitating many of their arts, yet this does not appear to have proceeded from his being sensible of their value, or from a desire to improve his country; it seems merely to have been done with a view of showing his subjects, that, if he chose, he was capable of doing whatever Europeans could perform; for although he made broad cloth, paper formed on wires like the European kind, watches, and cutlery, yet the processes for making the whole were kept secret. A French artist had prepared an engine, driven by water, for boring cannon; but so little sensible was the Sultan of its value, that he ordered the water wheel to be removed, and employed bullocks to work the machinery. One of his favourite maxims of policy was, to overthrow everything that had been done in the Rajah's govern-

ment; and in carrying this into practice, he frequently destroyed works of great public utility, such as reservoirs, and canals for watering the ground. Although an active prince, he in a great measure secluded himself from his subjects (one of the greatest evils that can happen in an absolute monarchy); and his chief confidant, Meer Saduc, was a monster of avarice and cruelty. The people universally accuse Tippoo of bigotry, and vain glory; but they attribute most of their miseries to the influence of his minister. The Brahmans, who managed the whole of the revenue department, were so avaricious, so corrupt, and had shewn such ingratitude to Hyder, that Tippoo would have entirely displaced them, if he could have done without their services; but that was impossible; for no other persons in the country had any knowledge of business. Instead of checking them by a constant inspection into their conduct, by exemplary punishment when detected in speculation, and by allowing them handsome salaries to raise them above temptation, he appointed Mussulman Asophs, or lord-lieutenants, to superintend large divisions of the country; and this greatly increased the evil; for these men, entirely sunk in indolence, voluptuousness, and ignorance, confident of favour from the bigotry of their sovereign, and destitute of principle, universally took bribes to supply their wants; and the delinquencies of the Brahmans were doubled, to make good the new demands of the Asophs, over and above their former profits. Owing to this system, although the Sultan had laid on many new taxes, the actual receipts of the treasury never equalled those in the time of his father. The Amildars, under various prettexts of unavoidable emergency, reported prodigious outstanding balances, while they received, as bribes from the cultivators, a part of the deductions so made. Although the taxes actually paid by the people to the government were thus much lighter than they had been in the administration of Hyder, the industrious cultivator was by no means in so good a condition as formerly. The most frivolous prettexts were received, as sufficient cause for commencing a criminal prosecution against any person supposed to be rich; and nothing but a bribe could prevent an accused individual from ruin. Tippoo certainly had considerable talents for war; but his fondness for it, and his engaging with an enemy so much his superior in the art, brought on his destruction; while his early habits of contending with the Mahratta plunderers, had given him a ferocity and barbarity that must prevent every considerate person from pitying his overthrow. The policy in which he succeeded best, was in attaching to him the lower Mussulmans. He possessed in the highest degree all the cant, bigotry, and zeal so well fitted for the purpose, and which some few men of abilities have succeeded in assuming; but with him, I believe, they were natural. None of his Mussulmans have entered into our service, although many of them are in great want; and they all retain a high respect for his memory, considering him as a martyr, who died in the defence of their religion.

Though Tippoo had thus secured the affections of many of his subjects, and though he was perhaps conscious of good intentions, and fondly imagined that his government was fit to be a pattern to

all others ; yet whoever sees his private apartments will be sensible, that the mind of the despotic monarch was torn with apprehension. Such is, perhaps, the universal state of men of this description ; and although a knowledge of the circumstance may not be sufficient to prevent the ambitious from grasping at his power, nor to induce the person who has once possessed it to return to the calm of private life ; yet it may be some consolation to the persons exposed to its baneful influence, to know, that their ruler enjoys less security and tranquillity of mind than themselves.

‘ From the principal front of the palace, which served as a revenue office, and as a place from whence the Sultan occasionally shewed himself to the populace, the chief entry into the private square was through a strong narrow passage, wherein were chained four tigers ; which, although somewhat tame, would in case of any disturbance become unruly. Within these was the hall in which Tippoo wrote, and into which very few persons, except Meer Saduc, were ever admitted. Immediately behind this, was the bed-chamber, which communicated with the hall by a door and two windows, and was shut up on every side. The door was strongly secured on the inside, and a close iron-grating defended the windows. The Sultan, lest any person should fire on him while in bed, slept in a hammock, which was suspended from the roof by chains, in such a situation as to be invisible through the windows. In the hammock were found a sword and a pair of loaded pistols.’ (Vol. I. p. 69.)

How miserable must have been the life of this Indian Dionysius, when even the recesses of his chamber, and the silence of midnight, could not procure for him the confidence of undisturbed repose !

We shall not attempt to trace the progress of the author, because a mere catalogue of places so little known to European readers must be totally without interest, and such an itinerary is supplied by the contents of the several chapters, placed at the beginning of each volume. It would be of more consequence to inquire how far Dr. B. appears to have fulfilled the intentions of his employers : but this is a task which the nature of the work, and the manner in which it is written, render it almost impossible for us to perform. Were we even to collect the principal observations on any particular head, we should despair of rendering them intelligible to our readers, from the perpetual recurrence of Hindoo words ; the explanation of which is seldom given, and, when given, is seldom satisfactory. We must therefore content ourselves with making a few quotations connected with some of the more important subjects of inquiry.

Dr. Buchanan appears to have paid very particular attention to the state of agriculture in the several provinces and districts, and has added numerous drawings of the implements employed. These implements are in general exceedingly simple, and in-

deed the state of cultivation in these countries appears to be but little advanced beyond the rudeness of earlier ages. The Doctor has been most minute in his remarks on the cultivation of cotton, rice, and pepper; and his observations on the last of these productions, as cultivated in Malabar, deserve particular notice:

‘I here examined the cultivators concerning the manner of raising the pepper-vine. They say, that it does not thrive where planted close together; and therefore every man, in the garden near his house, has five or six trees only, which are intended as supports for this valuable plant. The Mango tree (*Mangifera*) ought to be at least twenty years before any pepper vines are put on it. Suppose a Mango tree be fit for receiving the vine, the following is the manner in which that is planted. Between the 11th of June and the 12th of July, or at the commencement of the rainy season, the soil round the tree is dug, and a small bank, surrounding the root at a cubit's distance, is formed to confine the water. Then from 8 to 12 shoots of the vine, in proportion to the size of the tree, are laid down within the bank, and with two or three inches of one end standing up against the trunk. They are then covered with about an inch of fine mould; and, if any length of time occurs without rain, they must be watered; but this is seldom required. The shoots are about a cubit long. As the vines grow, they must be tied up to the tree, and rank weeds must be pulled up from near their roots. In the hot season they require to be watered with a pot; and at the commencement of the rainy season some leaves, ashes, and dung must be spread on the ground near their roots. The pepper vine begins to bear at six years of age; in four years more it is in full perfection, and continues so for twenty years, when it dies. The young *Amenta* begin to form at a feast called Tiruvadaray Netvelly, which is accompanied by a certain conjunction of the stars, the period of which none but astrologers can tell. It happened this year on the 17th of June. The beginning of the rainy season may therefore be considered as the flowering time of the pepper. When the fruit is intended for black pepper, it is allowed to ripen; but is collected green, so soon as the berries become hard and firm, which happens between the 13th of December and the 11th of January. As the *amenta* come to a proper maturity, they are pinched off by the fingers, placed on a mat, and rubbed with the hands and feet, until the berries separate from the stem. These are then spread out on mats, so that one does not lie upon another, and are dried two, or at the most three days in the sun; while at night they are collected in earthen jars, to keep them from the dew. The pepper is then put up in a mat-bag, containing from 2 to 4 Tolams, or from 64 to 128lbs, and is fit for sale. The whole cost attending this process seems to be very trifling; and I have no doubt of Mr. Smee's allowance, of $\frac{1}{5}$ of the produce, being fully adequate to defray the annual expence. The original cost of planting can hardly be brought to an accompt, it is so small. What is intended for white pepper is allowed to become quite ripe. The berries are then red, and the pulp being washed off, the white seed is dried

dried for sale. The vines in this case are very apt to die, and in this province little or none is now made.' (Vol. II. p. 463.)

The cattle bred in these districts differ in several respects from those of Europe. The animal described in the ensuing paragraph is probably known to few of our readers :

' The long-legged goat, called Maycay in the Caranese language, is a very different breed from the common goat ; but the two kinds can propagate together. It seems to approach nearly to the Syrian goat. By the Mussulmans here, it is most absurdly classed with the sheep, while the short-legged goat has an appropriate name. On every flock of sheep there is commonly a proportion of Maycays, which may be from ten to twenty out of every hundred. This does not interfere with the pasture of the sheep ; as the Maycay lives entirely on the leaves of bushes and trees, while the sheep eat only the grass. They require the same quantity of water. One male is kept for twenty females. Of those not wanted for breeding, the shepherd sacrifices some for his own use while they are young ; the remainder he castrates and sells to the butcher. The female breeds at two years of age, without observing any regular season ; and once a year produces one kid, sometimes twins. They breed about four times ; after which they are generally killed by the shepherds for their own use. For three months the kid is allowed the whole milk ; afterwards the mother is milked once a day for two months ; and eight goats will give a quart of milk. A castrated Maycay sells for a rupee and a half, or 3s. 3d. Some, that are very large, are ornamented with silver chains and bells, and serve for the children of the rich to ride on.' (Vol. I. p. 120.)

On the natural productions of Mysore and the adjacent territories, we have found little that is new or important, except as those subjects are connected with the agriculture or commerce of the country : but the work abounds with observations on the manners and customs of the numerous sects and tribes into which the Hindoos are divided. These observations are, however, rendered nearly unintelligible to Europeans, from the strange mixture of Hindoo and English names which they contain. On the division into right-hand and left-hand-casts, we have the subsequent remarks :

' The origin of the division of Hindoos into the right and left-hand-sides, is involved in fable. It is said to have taken place at Kunji, or Conjeveram, by order of the goddess Kali ; and the rules to be observed by each side were at the same time engraved on a copper-plate, which is said to be preserved at the temple of that place. The existence of such a plate, however, is very doubtful ; both parties founding on its authority their pretensions, which are diametrically opposite. The different casts, of which each division is composed, are not united by any common tie of religion, occupation, or kindred : it seems, therefore, to be merely a struggle for certain honorary distinctions. The right-hand-side pretend, that they have the exclusive privilege of

using twelve pillars in the pundal, or shed, under which their marriage ceremonies are performed ; and that their adversaries, in their processions, have no right to ride on horseback, nor to carry a flag painted with the figure of Hanumanta. The left-hand-side pretend, that all these privileges are confirmed to them by the grant of Kali on the copper-plate ; and that they are of the highest rank, having been placed by that goddess on her left hand, which in India is the place of honour. Frequent disputes arise concerning these important matters ; and on such occasions, not only mutual abuse is common, but also the heads of the divisions occasionally stir up the lowest and most ignorant of their followers to have recourse to violence, and encourage them by holding out the houses and shops of their adversaries as proper objects for plunder. A very serious dispute took place at Serin-gapatam since it fell into the hands of the English. Thirty families of the weavers, belonging to the left-hand-side, joined themselves to the Teliga Banijigaru, and were encouraged by them to use all the honorary distinctions claimed by the right-hand-side. This gave great offence to the Panchum Banijigaru, and the Whalliaru were set loose to plunder ; nor could they be repressed without an exertion of military force, by which several people were killed. In order to preserve the peace of the garrison, and to endeavour to bring the two parties to an agreement, it has ever since been thought expedient to prohibit any marriages from being celebrated within the fort.' (Vol. I, p. 79.)

In his journey from Doda-Bala-Pura (situated north of Bangalore) to Sira, the author meets with several casts, on whose customs he is more than usually minute. From this part we select a passage which will afford a specimen of the entertainment that may be expected by general readers :

' The Baydaru are of two kinds, Karnata, and Telinga. The former wear the Linga, and are said to be numerous near Raya-durga. Those in the north-eastern parts of the Mysore Raja's dominions are of Telinga descent, and retain that language. They seem to be the true Sudra cultivators and military of Telingána, and to have been introduced in great numbers into the southern countries of the peninsula, when these became subject to Andray or Telingána princes. The Telinga Baydas neither intermarry, nor eat in common with those of Karnata extraction. Among themselves they can all eat together ; but, in order to keep up the purity of the race, they never marry, except in families whose pedigree is well known. Like the Bráhmans, they are divided into a number of families, of which a male and female can never intermarry. They have also among them a race of nobles called Chimalas. Among these are the hereditary chiefs, who punish transgressions against the rules of cast, and who are called Gotugaru. From this class of nobles were also appointed the feudal lords, vulgarly called Polygars ; but who assumed to themselves the Sanacrit title of Sansthánika. Civil differences in this tribe are made up in assemblies of the heads of families, the hereditary chiefs having become almost extinct. * No heavier punishment was ever inflicted by these than the mulct of an entertainment. The Baydaru ought by birth

birth to be soldiers, and hunters of tigers, boars, deer, and other noble game, and ought to support themselves by cultivating the ground. They are both farmers and hinds, and sometimes act as Talliari, a low village officer. They are permitted to eat fowls, sheep, goats, hogs, deer, and fish, and to drink spirituous liquors. The men are allowed to take many wives, but can only divorce them for adultery. The women are very industrious, both at home and in the field; and even after the age of puberty continue to be marriageable. Widows are not expected to sacrifice themselves to the manes of their husbands; but they cannot marry a second time. In some families of the Baydaru, however, they may be received as concubines. They bury the dead. They believe, that after death wicked men become devils, and that good men are born again in the human form. The spirits of men who die without having married become Virika; and to their memory have small temples and images erected, where offerings of cloth, rice, and the like, are made to their manes. If this be neglected, they appear in dreams, and threaten those who are forgetful of their duty. These temples consist of a heap, or cairn of stones, in which the roof of a small cavity is supported by two or three flags; and the image is a rude shapeless stone, which is occasionally oiled, as in this country all other images are. Female chastity is not at all honoured in this way. This superstition seems rather local, than as belonging to this cast; for it is followed by all the Sudras of this part of the country, and I have not observed it any where else. The Baydaru, in consequence of vows made in sickness, take Dásari, that is, dedicate themselves to the service of God, both perpetual and temporary. The proper God of the cast is Trimula Dévaru, to whom a celebrated temple is here dedicated. It is an immense mass of granite on the summit of a low hill. Under one side of it is a natural cavity, which is painted red and white with streaks of red ochre and lime. In this cavity is placed a rude stone, as the emblem of the god; and it is attended by a priest or Pujari of the cast called Satánana. To this place all the Baydaru of the neighbourhood once a year resort. The Pujari then dresses some victuals; and having consecrated them, by placing them before the idol, he divides them among the people. Trimula, it must be observed, is the name of the hill at Tripathi, on which the celebrated temple of Vishnu, under the name of Vencaty Ramána, is built. The Baydaru never pray to any of the Saktis except Marima, who inflicts the small-pox on those who offend her. To this terrible power they offer sacrifices, and eat the flesh. Their Guru is Trimula Tata Achárya, an hereditary chief of the Sri Vaishnavam Bráhmans who gives them Chakrantikam Upadesa, and holy water, and when he visits the place, receives from each person one Fanam. At marriages, and at the annual commemoration of deceased parents, the Panchánga acts as Puróhita.' (Vol. I. p. 358.)

The credulity of the Hindoos, and their superstitious confidence in their Brahmans, are well known; and several striking instances are related by Dr. Buchanan. Indeed, we are not sure whether, in some cases, the learned traveller has not been infected

infected with a portion of the credulity which he endeavours to expose. The ensuing anecdote, however, is free from this imputation, and has more of the humorous than we generally discover in these volumes :

‘ At night I was awaked by a prodigious noise in the village, which was at some distance from my tents. On inquiry of the sentry, I was told, that there was no one near except himself ; every other person having gone into the village as soon as the uproar commenced. I lay for some hours in great uneasiness, supposing that my people had quarrelled with the natives ; but, it being a rainy night, I did not venture out, and was unwilling to part with the sentry. Soon after, all was quiet, and the people returned. In the morning my interpreter told me with a good deal of exultation, that one of the cattle-drivers had been possessed by a Pysachi, or evil spirit, and had been for some time senseless, and foaming at the mouth. On this occasion the whole people, Mussulmans and Pagans, had assembled ; and, in hopes of frightening away the devil, had made all the noise that they could ; but he had continued obstinately to keep possession, till the arrival of the Bráhma, who, having thrown some consecrated ashes on the man, and offered up the prayers proper for the occasion, at length procured a release. The interpreter. I suspect, made the most of his story, in order to remove my infidelity ; as the day before I had refused my assent to believe, that certain Mantrams pronounced by a Bráhma could compel the gods to be present in whatever place he chose. It is almost unnecessary to observe, that the poor cattle-driver was subject to the epilepsy, the recurrence of which this night had, I believe, been occasioned by a violent paroxysm of intoxication, in which the whole party had been so deeply engaged, that until morning I could not get a man to tie up the baggage.’ (Vol. II. p. 45.)

In so voluminous and multifarious a work, an ample table of contents and a copious index are surely requisite, if not indispensable : yet the table of contents prefixed to each of the present volumes is a mere itinerary ; and the index, though full, is almost useless, except to those who are acquainted with the dialects of Hindoostan. Thus, if an European reader be curious to ascertain how far the horrible custom of burning the living with the dead still prevails in India, (a subject which he might expect to see fully discussed in these travels,) he will perhaps, on consulting the index, first look for Malabar, as that district of the peninsula in which he has been told that this custom was most prevalent. In this part of the index, however, he has only three references to the appearance of the country in Malabar. He will then, perhaps, turn to the word Widows, where he will find three more references ; from one of which he learns that, among the Samay Shalay, the widow is sometimes buried alive at the same time, but not in the same grave, with her deceased husband ; and from another, that a lady

lady of a *Polygar* family, having burned herself with her husband's corpse, (a practice which, as far as the Doctor could learn, has been always very rare above the Ghats,) had the honour of giving her name to the town of Madigheshy. Besides these trifling instances, he has referred to the head of each cast for its customs respecting widows : but this reference, as we have said, is of no use to an European reader.

On the whole, we can scarcely promise Dr. Buchanan that his work will meet with a very extensive circulation in this country ; though, among our civil and military officers in India, for whose use it seems more particularly to have been composed, it will be consulted, if not perused, with pleasure and advantage. Considering it as a journal of events and observations, minuted during a long, hasty, and laborious tour, we must not perhaps be too fastidious in criticising the style and language. Of the latter we have already given our opinion ; and with respect to the former we may remark generally that it is often loose and careless, not to say vulgar, and that it abounds in Scotticisms. The engravings accompanying the volumes are ably executed, and appear to be well designed, especially the portraits of the Mysore princes.

ART. VIII. *Memorandum on the Subject of the Earl of Elgin's Pursuits in Greece.* 8vo. pp. 77. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1811.

IT will ever be a matter of extreme regret with artists, and with the lovers of the fine arts, that the districts including antient Greece and Ionia should have fallen into the hands of iconoclasts and barbarians ; who could view without admiration the most exquisite specimens of genius and taste, and who could estimate the value of a marble statue, executed by the hand of Phidias himself, only by considering into how many bushels of lime it might be converted. In our own country, the operation of time (or, to speak more correctly, of the atmosphere,) is more or less fatal to all works of art that are exposed to the open air : but in Greece it is otherwise. There the climate is so mild and uniform, that sculptures, which have been executed more than two thousand years, still preserve the sharpness of the chisel ; and, in those instances in which the hand of violence has not been applied, the productions of the Grecian artists maintain their pristine beauty.

If the Turks had known how to estimate the architectural and sculptural treasures which they possess, and had been solicitous for their preservation, Greece itself would have been the proper school for the study of antient art ; and we should have entered

entered a most solemn protest against the removal of a single statue from the spot to which the superstition or the patriotism of the Greeks had consecrated it, — against despoiling a beautiful temple of a single column, or even of a part of its frieze, — or, in short, against making collections at home by a system of violence and mutilation abroad. The case, however, which we have imagined, is the complete reverse of the matter of fact; and in truth the beauties of the antient Grecian artists can be saved only by their removal. Lord Elgin, therefore, is to be commended instead of being censured for the principle on which he directed his ‘Pursuits in Greece;’ and we think that Europe is greatly obliged to him for availing himself of the opportunity which his embassy afforded him, not only in taking exact admeasurements of the remains of art, but in collecting and packing up for exportation every specimen or fragment of Phidian genius that the Turks would permit him to make his own. We think, also, that it is a proof of his judgment as well as of his zeal that he had recourse to excavations; and since the works of human skill above ground are rapidly disappearing in the Peloponnesus, in Ionia, and in the Grecian isles, we recommend it to future travellers, when on the site of a once celebrated building which is no longer visible even in ruins, to employ the mattock and the spade, if the jealous Turks will allow them, for the purpose of discovering those treasures which have escaped the spoliation of barbarians by falling into the fostering bosom of mother-earth. Mr. West, the President of the Royal Academy, in a letter to Lord Elgin subjoined to the short Memoir before us, is of our opinion respecting the policy of the line of conduct which his Lordship has pursued; and we trust that the monuments which have been thus preserved will be so placed as to become a national school for our young men of taste:

‘In whatever estimation, (says Mr. W.,) the arts of the present day shall be held by those of future ages, your Lordship must be remembered by the present, and be recorded by those to come, as a benefactor, who has conferred obligations, not only on a profession, but upon a nation; and as having rescued from the devastation of ignorance, and the unholy rapine of barbarism, those unrivalled works of genius, to be preserved in the bosom of your country, which a few centuries more might have consigned to oblivion.’

The associates whom Lord E. was so fortunate as to obtain in the prosecution of his plan, and the length of time during which the artists were settled at Athens*, contributed much to the accuracy of their labours in measuring, taking casts, &c. as well as to increase the amount of that collection which was des-

* Three years.—Stuart and Revett were there two years and a half.
tined

tinued for the British capital. As the nature and particulars of the undertaking cannot be more clearly explained than by his Lordship, we shall take the liberty of transcribing at some length from the memoir before us :

‘ In the year 1799, when Lord Elgin was appointed His Majesty’s Ambassador Extraordinary to the Ottoman Porte, he happened to be in habits of frequent intercourse with Mr. Harrison, an architect of great eminence in the west of England, who had there given various very splendid proofs of his professional talents, especially in a public building of Grecian architecture at Chester. Mr. Harrison had besides studied many years, and to great purpose, at Rome. Lord Elgin consulted him, therefore, on the benefits that might possibly be derived to the arts in this country, in case an opportunity could be found for studying minutely the architecture and sculpture of ancient Greece ; and his opinion very decidedly was, that although we might possess exact measurements of the buildings at Athens, yet a young artist could never form to himself an adequate conception of their minute details, combinations, and general effect, without having before him some such sensible representation of them as might be conveyed by casts. This advice, which laid the groundwork of Lord Elgin’s pursuits in Greece, led to the further consideration, that, since any knowledge which was possessed of these buildings had been obtained under the peculiar disadvantages which the prejudices and jealousies of the Turks had ever thrown in the way of such attempts, any favourable circumstances which Lord Elgin’s embassy might offer should be improved fundamentally ; and not only modellers, but architects and draftsmen, might be employed, to rescue from oblivion, with the most accurate detail, whatever specimens of architecture and sculpture in Greece had still escaped the ravages of time, and the barbarism of conquerors.

‘ On this suggestion, Lord Elgin proposed to His Majesty’s Government, that they should send out English artists of known eminence, capable of collecting this information in the most perfect manner ; but the prospect appeared of too doubtful an issue for ministers to engage in the expence attending it. Lord Elgin then endeavoured to engage some of these artists at his own charge ; but the value of their time was far beyond his means. When, however, he reached Sicily, on the recommendation of Sir William Hamilton, he was so fortunate as to prevail on Don Tita Lusieri, one of the best general painters in Europe, of great knowledge in the arts, infinite taste, and most scrupulously exact in copying any subject he is to represent, to undertake the execution of this plan ; and Mr. Hamilton, who was then accompanying Lord Elgin to Constantinople, immediately went with M. Lusieri to Rome ; where, in consequence of the late revolutions in Italy, they were enabled to engage two of the most eminent *formatori* to make the *madreformi* for the casts : Signior Balestra, the first architect there, along with Ittar, a young man of great talent, to undertake the architectural part of the plan ; and one Theodore, a Calmouk, who had distinguished himself during several years at Rome, in the capacity of figure painter.

‘ After

‘ After much difficulty, Lord Elgin obtained permission from the Turkish Government to establish these six artists at Athens ; where they prosecuted the business of their several departments during three years, acting on one general system, with the advantage of mutual control, and under the general superintendence of M. Lusieri. They at length completed Lord Elgin’s plan in all its parts.

‘ Accordingly, every monument, of which there are any remains in Athens, has been thus most carefully and minutely measured ; and, from the rough draughts of the architects, (all of which are preserved,) finished drawings have been made of the plans, elevations, and details of the most remarkable objects ; in which the Calmouk has restored and inserted all the sculpture, with exquisite taste and ability. He has besides drawn, with astonishing accuracy, all the bas-reliefs on the several temples, in the precise state of decay and mutilation in which they at present exist.

‘ Most of the *bas-reliefs*, and nearly all the characteristic features of architecture, in the various monuments at Athens, have been moulded, and the moulds of them have been brought to London.

‘ Besides the architecture and sculpture at Athens, all remains of them which could be traced through several other parts of Greece, have been measured and delineated, with the most scrupulous exactness, by the second architect, Ittar.

‘ And picturesque views of Athens, of Constantinople, of various parts of Greece, and of the Islands of the Archipelago, have been executed by Don Tita Lusieri.

‘ In the prosecution of this undertaking, the artists had the mortification of witnessing the very wilful devastation, to which all the sculpture, and even the architecture, were daily exposed, on the part of the Turks and travellers. The Ionic Temple, on the Ilyssus, which, in Stuart’s time, (about the year 1759,) was in tolerable preservation, had so completely disappeared, that its foundation can no longer be ascertained. Another temple, near Olympia, had shared a similar fate, within the recollection of man. The Temple of Minerva had been converted into a powder magazine, and been completely destroyed, from a shell falling upon it, during the bombardment of Athens by the Venetians towards the end of the seventeenth century ; and even this accident had not deterred the Turks from applying the beautiful Temple of Neptune and Erectheus to the same use, whereby it is constantly exposed to a similar fate. Many of the statues on the *posticum* of the Temple of Minerva, (Parthenon,) which had been thrown down by the explosion, had been absolutely pounded for mortar, because they furnished the whitest marble within reach ; and the parts of the modern fortification, and the miserable houses where this mortar was so applied, were discovered. Besides, it is well known that the Turks will frequently climb up the ruined walls, and amuse themselves in defacing any sculpture they can reach ; or in breaking columns, statues, or other remains of antiquity, in the fond expectation of finding within them some hidden treasures.

‘ Under these circumstances, Lord Elgin felt himself impelled, by a stronger motive than personal gratification, to endeavour to pre-

serve any specimens of sculpture, he could, without injury, rescue from such impending ruin. He had, besides, another inducement, and example before him, in the conduct of the last French embassy sent to Turkey before the Revolution. French artists did then remove several of the sculptured ornaments from several edifices in the Acropolis; and particularly from the Parthenon. In lowering one of the metopes, the tackle failed, and it was dashed to pieces; but other objects from the same temple were conveyed to France, where they are held in the very highest estimation, and some of them occupy conspicuous places in the gallery of the Louvre. And the same agents were remaining at Athens during Lord Elgin's embassy, waiting only the return of French influence at the Porte to renew their operations. Actuated by these inducements, Lord Elgin made use of all his means, and ultimately with such success, that he has brought to England, from the ruined temples at Athens, from the modern walls and fortifications, in which many fragments had been used as so many blocks of stone, and from excavations made on purpose, a greater quantity of original Athenian sculpture, in statues, alti, and bassi relievi, capitals, cornices, frizes, and columns, than exists in any other part of Europe.

Lord Elgin is in possession of several of the original metopes from the Temple of Minerva. These represent the battles between the Centaurs and Lapithæ, at the nuptials of Pirithous. Each metope contains two figures, grouped in various attitudes; sometimes the Lapithæ victorious, sometimes the Centaurs. The figure of one of the Lapithæ, who is lying dead and trampled on by a Centaur, is one of the finest productions of the art; as well as the groupe adjoining to it, of Hippodamia, the bride, carried off by the Centaur Eurytion; the furious style of whose galloping, in order to secure his prize, and his shrinking from the spear that has been hurled after him, are expressed with prodigious animation. They are all in such high relief, as to seem groupes of statues; and they are in general finished with as much attention behind as before. They were originally continued round the entablature of the Parthenon, and formed ninety-two groupes. The zeal of the early Christians, the barbarism of the Turks, and the explosions which took place when the temple was used as a gun-powder magazine, have demolished a very large portion of them; so that, with the exception of those preserved by Lord Elgin, it is in general difficult to trace even the outline of the original subject.

The frize, which was carried along the top of the walls of the cell, offered a continuation of sculptures in low relief, and of the most interesting kind. This frize being unbroken by triglyphs, had presented much more unity of subject than the detached and insulated groupes on the metopes of the peristyle. It represented the whole of the solemn procession to the Temple of Minerva during the Panathænaic festival: many of the figures are on horseback; others are about to mount; some are in chariots; others on foot: oxen, and other victims, are leading to sacrifice: the nymphs called Canephoræ, Skio-phoræ, &c. are carrying the sacred offerings in baskets and vases; priests, magistrates, warriors, &c. &c. forming altogether a series of

of most interesting figures, in great variety of costume, armour, and attitude. Some antiquaries, who have examined this frieze with minute attention, seem to think it contained portraits of many of the leading characters at Athens, during the Peloponnesian war, particularly of Pericles, Phidias, Socrates, Alcibiades, &c. The whole frieze, which originally was six hundred feet in length, is, like the temple itself, of Pentelic marble, from the quarries in the neighbourhood of Athens.

‘ The tympanum over each of the porticoes of the Parthenon was adorned with statues. That over the grand entrance of the temple from the west contained the mythological history of Minerva’s birth from the brain of Jove. In the centre of the groupe was seated Jupiter, in all the majesty of the sovereign of the Gods. On his left, were the principal divinities of Olympus; among whom Vulcan came prominently forward, with the axe in his hand which had cleft a passage for the goddess. On the right was Victory, in loose floating robes, holding the horses of the chariot which introduced the new divinity to Olympus. One of the bombs fired by Morosini, the Venetian, from the opposite hill of the Museum, injured many of the figures in this tympanum; and the attempt of General Kœnigsmark, in 1687, to take down the figure of Minerva, ruined the whole. By purchasing the house of one of the Turkish janizaries, built immediately under and against the columns of the portico, and by demolishing it in order to excavate, Lord Elgin has had the satisfaction of recovering the greatest part of the statue of Victory, in a drapery which discovers the fine form of the figure, with exquisite delicacy and taste. Lord Elgin also found there the torsi of Jupiter and Vulcan, the breast of the Minerva, together with other fragments.

‘ On the opposite tympanum had been represented the contest between Minerva and Neptune for the honour of giving a name to the city. One or two of the figures remained on this tympanum, and others were on the top of the wall, thrown back by the explosion which destroyed the temple; but the far greater part had fallen: and a house being built immediately below the space they had occupied, Lord Elgin, encouraged by the success of his former excavations, obtained leave, after much difficulty, to pull down this house also, and continue his researches. But no fragments were here discovered; *and the Turk, who had been induced, though most reluctantly, to give up his house to be demolished, then exultingly pointed out the places in the modern fortification, and in his own buildings, where the cement employed had been formed from the very statues which Lord Elgin had been in hopes of finding.* And it was afterwards ascertained, on incontrovertible evidence, *that these statues had been reduced to powder, and so used.* Then, and then only, did Lord Elgin employ means to rescue what still remained from a similar fate. Among these objects is a horse’s head, which far surpasses any thing of the kind, both in the truth and spirit of the execution. The nostrils are distended, the ears erect; the veins swollen, one might almost say throbbing: his mouth is open, and he seems to neigh with the conscious pride of belonging to the Ruler of the Waves. Besides this inimitable head, Lord Elgin has procured, from the same pediment, two colossal groupes, each consisting

consisting of two female figures. They are formed of single massive blocks of Pentelic marble: their attitudes are most graceful, and the lightness and elegance of the drapery exquisite. From the same pediment has also been procured, a male statue, in a reclining posture, supposed to represent Neptune. And, above all, the figure denominated the Theseus, which is universally admitted to be superior to any piece of statuary ever brought into England. Each of these statues is worked with such care, and the finishing even carried so far, that every part, and the very plinth itself in which they rest, are equally polished on every side.*

The temples of the Acropolis, and particularly the Parthenon or Hecatompodon, have been minutely described by Stuart in his *Antiquities of Athens* *; and Lord Elgin echoes and adds to the praise already bestowed on it as a chaste and perfect model of Doric architecture, exhibiting the richest decorative sculpture which the skill of Phidias could produce. His Lordship also procured from the Opisthodomos of the Parthenon some valuable inscriptions, written in the manner called Kionedon, or Columnar, next in antiquity to the Boustrophedon. These inscriptions contain an equal number of letters in each line, which range perpendicularly as well as horizontally, rendering interpolation almost impossible.

Of the temple of Theseus, the metopes in mezzo-relievo, containing a mixture of the labours of Hercules and Theseus, have been modelled and drawn; as well as the frize representing the battle between the Centaurs and the Lapithæ, some incidents of the battle of Marathon, and some mythological subjects. Of the remains of the temple of Victory, built from the sale of the spoils won in the memorable battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Platæa, only fragments have been obtained; those were worked into the wall of a gun-powder magazine; and to shew how little they were valued by the Turks, or rather how insensible these people were to their beauty, *the finest block was inserted upside downwards.*

* It required the whole of Lord Elgin's influence at the Porte, very great sacrifices, and much perseverance, to remove them; but he at length succeeded. They represent the Athenians in close combat with the Persians, and the sculptor has marked the different dresses and armour of the various forces serving under the great king. The long garments and zones of the Persians had induced former travellers, from the hasty and imperfect view they had of them, to suppose the subject was the battle between Theseus and the Amazons, who invaded Attica, under the command of Antiope; but the Persian tiaras, the Phrygian bonnets, and many other particulars, prove them to be mistaken. The spirit with which the groupes of com-

* See Rev. Vol. ii. N.S. p.316.

batants are pourtrayed, is wonderful; — one remarks, in particular, the contest of four warriors to rescue the dead body of one of their comrades, which is expressed with uncommon animation. These bas-reliefs, and some of the most valuable sculptures, especially the representation of a marriage, taken from the parapet of the modern fortification, were embarked in the *Mentor*, a vessel belonging to Lord Elgin, which was unfortunately wrecked off the island of Cerigo: but Mr. Hamilton, who was at the time on board, and most providentially saved, immediately directed his whole energies to discover some means of rescuing so valuable a cargo; and in the course of several months devoted to that endeavour, he succeeded in procuring some very expert divers from the islands of Syme and Calymno, near Rhodes; who were able, with immense labour and perseverance, to extricate a few of the cases from the hold of the ship, while she lay in twelve fathoms water. It was impossible to recover the remainder, before the storms of two winters had effectually destroyed the timbers of the vessel.'

We are not told whether the large block was recovered from the wreck: but we fear that it was not, since otherwise his Lordship would have had pleasure in mentioning that fact. Three small temples, of the Ionic order, stand near the Parthenon, one dedicated to Neptune and Erectheus; the second to Minerva Polias, the protectress of citadels; and the third to the nymph Pandrosos. Lord E. speaks of the temple of Minerva as being of the most delicate and elegant proportions, having a frieze and cornice exquisitely rich. Of the vestibule of the temple of Neptune, he says that it displays more masculine proportions, that its Ionic capitals have great merit, and that the inner door, which he contemplated as a matter of favour, (the edifice being used for a *powder magazine*, and the spaces between the columns being built up,) forms 'the most perfect specimen in existence of Ionic architecture.' Since future travellers will probably not be allowed to explore this temple, we are happy to find that this, as well as the other temples mentioned in connection with it, have been measured; and that plans, elevations, and views of them, have been taken with the greatest accuracy. In the adjoining chapel of Pandrosos, are those singular columns called *Caryatides*, representing Caryan women. One of those statues has been brought to England.

The artists employed by the Earl have also made a ground-plan of the Acropolis, and have traced the ancient walls of the city of Athens, together with the long walls which led to the Munychia and the Piræus. In this map, every position of the gates and of the public monuments that could be ascertained has been inserted. To effect this purpose, extensive excavations were made; and by the opening of tumuli a complete collection

tion of Greek vases has been obtained. On the subject of vases, it is observed that

‘ The colonies sent from Athens, Corinth, &c. into Magna Græcia, Sicily, and Etruria, carried with them this art of making vases, from their mother country ; and, as the earliest modern collections of vases were made in those colonies, they have improperly acquired the name of Etruscan. Those found by Lord Elgin at Athens, Æginæ, Argos, and Corinth, will prove the indubitable claim of the Greeks to the invention and perfection of this art : few of those in the collections of the King of Naples at Portici, or in that of Sir William Hamilton, excel some which Lord Elgin has procured, with respect to the elegance of the form, the fineness of the materials, the delicacy of the execution, or the beauty of the subjects delineated on them : and they are, for the most part, in very high preservation. A tumulus, into which an excavation was commenced under Lord Elgin’s eye during his residence at Athens, has furnished a most valuable treasure of this kind. It consists of a large marble vase, five feet in circumference, enclosing one of bronze thirteen inches in diameter, of beautiful sculpture, in which was a deposit of burnt bones, and a lachrymatory of alabaster, of exquisite form ; and on the bones lay a wreath of myrtle in gold, having, besides leaves, both buds and flowers. This tumulus is situated on the road which leads from Port Piræus to the Salaminian Ferry and Eleusis. May it not be the tomb of Aspasia ?’

An antient sun-dial, which existed in the time of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, was procured from the temple of Bacchus ; together with a large statue of the Indian or bearded Bacchus, which is represented by Stuart with a female head, and called by him the personification of the Demos of Athens. From the churches and convents of that city, by permission of the Bishop, curious fragments of antiquity were collected ; and Lord E. did not omit to purchase from the peasants, who generally put in a niche over the door of their cottages the fragments which they discover in ploughing their fields, all such antique votive tablets, with sculpture and inscriptions, as merited preservation. Bronzes, cameos, and intaglios were obtained ; and in particular a cameo of very exquisite beauty, in perfect preservation, and executed on a peculiarly fine stone, representing a female centaur suckling a young one. A collection of Greek medals was also formed.—Moreover,

‘ Lord Elgin was indebted chiefly to the friendship of the Captain Pacha, for the good fortune of procuring, while at the Dardanelles, in his way to Constantinople, the celebrated Boustrophedon inscription, from the promontory of Sigæum, a monument which several ambassadors from Christian Powers to the Porte, and even Louis XIV. in the height of his power, had ineffectually endeavoured to obtain. Lord Elgin found it forming a seat or couch at the door of a Greek chapel, and habitually resorted to by persons afflicted with ague ; who, deriving great relief from remaining reclined upon it, attributed their

recovery to the marble, and not to the elevated situation and sea air, of which it procured them the advantage. This ill-fated superstition had already obliterated more than one half of the inscription, and in a few years more it would have become perfectly illegible."

We have made this enumeration from the brief memoir before us, in order to give the reader an idea of the extent of the researches prosecuted under Lord Elgin's direction, and of the great success with which they were attended. Here, however, we have only a notice which will excite curiosity; and the public may look forwards to a splendid and valuable work, which will be formed out of the rich and various collection of materials now in his Lordship's possession. The use that will be made of them, in the advancement of the arts in this country, is incalculable; and Mr. West has very laudably led the way in pointing out their application by the English student. It is to be hoped, nevertheless, that the admiration of the school of Phidias will not seduce us to a misapplication of Grecian ornaments; for though sculptures representing the Centaurs and the Lapithæ may be very proper for the frieze of a heathen temple, they would form ridiculous decorations of edifices in a Christian country. Our artists will do well to study the chasteness and beautiful proportions of Grecian architecture, and to discard the confusion of orders which a bad taste has introduced among us: but the Grecian style will not be found to suit all occasions. Lord Elgin's thoughts have been directed to the profitable uses which may be made of his museum; and the ideas which he has collected on this subject are stated with great precision:

'In proportion as Lord Elgin's plan advanced, and the means accumulated in his hands towards affording an accurate knowledge of the works of architecture and sculpture in Athens and in Greece, it became a subject of anxious inquiry with him, in what way the greatest degree of benefit could be derived to the arts from what he had been so fortunate as to procure.

'In regard to the works of the architects employed by him, he had, naturally, from the beginning, looked forward to their being engraved: and accordingly all such plans, elevations, and details, as to those persons appeared desirable for that object, were by them, and on the spot, extended with the greatest possible care, and they are now in a state of complete preparation. Besides these, all the working sketches and measurements have been preserved, and offer ample materials for further drawings, should they be required. It was then Lord Elgin's wish, both out of respect for the subjects themselves, and in a view to their future utility, that the whole of the drawings might be executed in the highest perfection of the art of engraving: and for this purpose, he conceived it not impossible, and certainly very much to be desired, that a fund should be procured by subscription, exhibition, or otherwise; by aid of which, these engravings might

might still be distributable, for the benefit of artists, at a rate of expence within the means of professional men.

‘ More difficulty occurred in forming a plan, for deriving the utmost advantage from the marbles and casts. Lord Elgin’s first attempt was to have the statues and bas-reliefs restored; and in that view he went to Rome, to consult and to employ Canova. The decision of that most eminent artist was conclusive. On examining the specimens produced to him, and making himself acquainted with the whole collection, and particularly with what came from the Parthenon, by means of the persons who had been carrying on Lord Elgin’s operations at Athens, and who had returned with him to Rome, Canova declared, That however greatly it was to be lamented that these statues should have suffered so much from time and barbarism, yet it was undeniable, that they had never been retouched; that they were the work of the ablest artists the world had ever seen: executed under the most enlightened patron of the arts, and at a period when genius enjoyed the most liberal encouragement, and had attained the highest degree of perfection; and that they had been found worthy of forming the decoration of the most admired edifice ever erected in Greece: that he should have had the greatest delight, and derived the greatest benefit, from the opportunity Lord Elgin offered him of having in his possession, and contemplating, these inestimable marbles: but, (his expression was,) it would be sacrilege in him, or any man, to presume to touch them with a chisel. Since their arrival in this country, they have been thrown open to the inspection of the public; and the opinions and impressions, not only of artists, but of men of taste in general, have thus been formed and collected. From these, the judgment pronounced by Canova has been universally sanctioned: and all idea of restoring the marbles has been deprecated.’

Experience has shewn that attempts at restoration have more frequently spoiled than improved the marbles on which the trials have been made. It is moreover desirable to see the remains of antiquity in the very state in which they were found, without the tricks which may be played on them by modern artists. The judgment of Canova, therefore, was that of sound taste and good sense. Let our painters and sculptors study these originals, and let them derive hints from the anatomical truth which these productions of the Grecian chisel exhibit in the representations of men and brute animals: let them also consider the state of society, and particularly the gymnastic exercises by which the human figure was displayed to advantage before the artists of Greece; and, in contemplating the architectural fragments, their original position and elevation should be remembered.

This short memorandum not only raises our hopes respecting the advantages which will in future be gained from Lord Elgin’s pursuits and collections in Greece, but manifests a highly commendable zeal for the arts, and intitles him to the praise of all enlightened men.

In the letters to which we have already adverted, and which form the 1st article of the appendix, Mr. West appreciates the value of the Elgin marbles, and details the suggestions which they have afforded him in the exercise of his profession. The 2d article contains notes on Phidias and his school, collected from antient authors; and the 3d, a description of a Bas-relief taken from the Parthenon, which is now in the Napoleon Museum at Paris, by A. L. Millin. A plate of this mutilated marble is also given.

ART. IX. *Essays on the Theory and Practice of the Art of War*, including the Duties of Officers on actual Service, and the Principles of modern Tactics. Chiefly translated from the best French and German writers. By the Editor of the *Military Mentor*. 12mo. 3 Vols. with Plates. 1l. 16s. Boards. R. Phillips.

A SLIGHT glance at the title of this work might lead a reader to conclude, erroneously, that it was to be regarded as a regular treatise on the Art of War: but the mention of its origin from various sources should warn him that it consists of detached tracts or essays, (some of which are in fact very imperfect and defective,) connected with the theory and practice of military operations. The editor, indeed, fairly acknowledges, in his preface, that much of its contents has been collected from a periodical performance now out of print, called *the Military Mentor*, and from the *Archives Militaires*, published under the sanction of the French government. It is partly didactic, partly explanatory, partly descriptive, and partly historical: but it is deficient in point of arrangement, since the succession of its component parts is not consonant to the gradual progress of military instruction, knowledge, and acquirements; some of the most important parts of which it does not treat, nor even touch.

The first volume begins with an 'Essay on reconnoitring,' by Colonel Allent, of the French Engineers, published at Paris in 1806, which occupies 136 pages. It is full and comprehensive; and though the author is in several places unnecessarily verbose, it merits the attentive perusal of military men, particularly young officers. It consists of fourteen sections, besides the following, which forms the conclusion:

'In the first section of this essay I have given a summary view of the kind of information necessary for the carrying on of warlike operations: the collecting such information is the object of reconnoitring.

'I then proceeded to discuss the means of observation, which were the principal object in this essay. Above all, I have endeavoured to

to make my readers acquainted with the instruments, the mode of proceeding, the rules and analogies that may be employed for the purpose of abridging the operations, or multiplying their results. The sketch of these resources will shew what may be undertaken in a given time, country, and circumstances. It may perhaps contribute to prevent two faults of an opposite nature, viz. the fault of not doing all that is possible, and that of attempting what is impossible.

‘ These means are not all applicable to every place and circumstance : an officer must look for and select those which correspond with his personal qualifications, with the operations which are confided to him, and with the degree of precision which they require.

‘ The instruction which these means presuppose is quite elementary. The instruments and processes relative to the quick formation of the outlines of maps, of triangles, or the taking of extensive levels, require in their application only the instruction given to engineers in the public military schools : the general notions which the essay presents relative to these operations are easy, and may be useful to officers engaged in the details. These operations, and the measurement of distances and heights do not exceed the capacity of such as are masters of the first elements of geometry : these problems are not more complicated than the elementary problems of tactics. At least there are few persons who may not, with little attention and application, comprehend the greater part of the experiments or observations in optics, perspective, or physical geography ; almost every reader will recollect therein facts which had forcibly struck him, and may ascertain the bulk of them on maps, and by his own observation during a walk or an excursion. It is not here requisite to explain the phenomena, but to notice them ; not to devote ones’self to the study of theories and systems, but to acquire a familiar acquaintance with some simple, positive, and practical notions ; not to enter into a profound examination of the principles of some sciences, but to learn their result, and apply them to military operations. Nor is there any of these applications of which the art of war does not already afford examples. All the sciences are intimately connected without being confounded, and mutually assist each other ; and the art of war, considered in all its branches, lays almost all the arts and sciences under contribution.

‘ In the branch of service we have been treating of, the easiest means are likewise the most usual ; and those attended with some difficulty are less frequently applicable in practice. The same thing occurs in all the practical sciences ; their perfection arises from multiplying not every kind of process ; but such as are simple, expeditious, and easily applied. This practical truth will account for the particular attention which in this essay has been paid to the elucidation of such means as may be useful to all military men.

‘ Of the great number of means pointed out and explained, all are not equally good : but all may prove useful. It is necessary to be acquainted with them all ; not for the purpose of applying indiscriminately, but to select the best, when it can be done, and in cases of necessity to employ those that happened to be at hand. Some of them are even very imperfect ; but these are sometimes the only ones

to which recourse can be had ; and if they give but rough approximations, it will likewise be frequently found, that the exigencies of the moment require nothing more. In general, the same principles that ought to direct an officer in reconnoitring, have guided me in the research : that is, the necessity of attending to time, that element which fixes the limits of possibility, decides every thing in war as well as politics, and has no less influence on the mechanism of events of the will, and of the passions, than on that of inanimate matter.'

In this tract, the author has thrown matter which requires study, and illustration by means of diagrams, into the form of notes ; and in one of them we discover an error of which we cannot avoid taking notice. ' If we suppose that two lines, AB and $A'B'$, being equal, and situated on the same plane, form the chords of two large circles belonging to two of the concentric spheres, the radii $AO, BO, A'O, B'O$, comprise two optical angles, the sines of which are to each other as the radii. On the contrary, if the angles were equal, it is the chords $A'B'$ and AD which would be to each other as the radii, and *vice versa*.' Now it is evident (see Fig. 18, Plate 1.) that the sines of the angles $AOB, A'OB$, or AOD , are not to each other as the Radii $A'O, AO$, and cannot indeed be so ; for if the radius $A'O$ be double or triple the radius AO , the chord $A'B'$ or its equal AB will be double or triple the chord AD : but the sines of angles at the centre of a circle, contained by radii drawn to the extremities of chords of different lengths applied in the same, are by no means to one another respectively as the chords themselves. — In his operations and measurements for determining the true positions of inaccessible objects, as well as those which are accessible, Colonel A. refers the whole to two bases or axes intersecting each other, either at right angles or in angles not deviating too much from right angles. The latter modification is applicable to those cases in which it is necessary to take the magistral bases on roads or dykes inclined to each other : but in both methods he makes the abscissæ and ordinates, which determine the objects by their intersections, perpendicular to these bases or axes.

The sides of the triangles expressing the respective distances between objects, he determines by means of the following theorem in plain trigonometry ; " In any triangle, twice the rectangle contained under any two sides is to the difference of the sum of the squares of these two sides, and the other side, as radius is to the co-sine of the angle included by the two sides." By the same proposition, he determines also the angles of these triangles :—but, in the last expression in page 61, for the co-sine of x , we observe a mistake in the numerator, the

the sign $+$ being used before the last term x^2 on the right hand side of the equation, instead of $-$, or the sign expressive of the difference between it and the sum of the two preceding terms. A similar mistake occurs in the numerator of the immediately preceding expression for the cosine of y , in regard to the first and second terms of it.

Colonel Allent, however, has certainly in this essay treated the subject of reconnoitring in a much more scientific and comprehensive manner, than that in which it is taught at our military seminaries; and yet there are some very simple methods for ascertaining the relative positions of the principal and leading objects, which he does not seem to have contemplated. — After all, it must be allowed that an able and prudent General will never trust very much to the military reports of reconnoitring officers for routes, positions, encampments, or fields of battle; since most of them being little more than mere sketchers or draftsmen, without possessing much knowledge of military operations as connected with the duties of a Commander, are incapable of affording him information on many points which it is necessary for him to know. Like Hannibal, Scipio, Turenne, Marlborough, Eugene, and other celebrated Generals, both of antient and modern times, he should examine the ground himself, leaving the direction and management of minute and subordinate matters to those who are under his command.

The 2d tract is on Pontoon-Bridges; the 3d, on the Crossing of Rivers, and the mode of defending the passage of them; the 4th, on the Conduct to be observed by an Officer on an Advanced Post; and the 5th, on the Construction of Small Mines. This last subject is treated concisely, and at the same time incorrectly, as is evident from section 8. Indeed, the observations in this short paper are conformable to Marshal Vauban's theory of mining, which is in itself erroneous; being founded on the supposition that the funnel, or *entonnoir*, made by the springing of a mine, is conical. This is unquestionably an important branch of military instruction, yet it is not made an object of attention at our public academies.

At page 169. we have a short essay on military operations in a mountainous country: — but, though England may almost be regarded as the only inclosed country in Europe, no directions are supplied in this publication for conducting either offensive or defensive military operations in such circumstances; yet the editor might have found some very useful and judicious observations on this important subject in Marshal Saxe's "Reveries," in General Lloyd's "Rhapsody on the defence of England," and in the "Short Essay on the modes of Defence

best adapted to the situation and circumstances of Great Britain."

We cannot, in course, attend specifically to every essay in this military miscellany; which is much better calculated for giving general and superficial notions of a variety of things connected with the profession of war, than substantial or solid instruction in regard to particular parts of practice. We must therefore confine ourselves to pointing out some errors and defects in it, a knowledge of which may prove useful to those for whose perusal it is intended. We have compared most of the extracts which it contains with the books from which they are taken, and find them to be tolerably correct: but we cannot help thinking that it might have afforded profitable instruction, if some of the examples, illustrative of the truth of the observations contained in these extracts, had been also inserted.

In treating of 'the Basis of military operations,' (page 204.) the writer observes:

'A little thought will be sufficient to perceive how few and inconsiderable were the wants of a Roman army compared with ours. The Roman troops easily found their subsistence in every country where they fought; their camps were their magazines, their lines of march were their lines of operation, and their armies were comparatively stronger, in proportion to their greater independence from external circumstances. Their camps, which had the form of a regular square, and would at present be called large redoubts, were fortified, probably for this reason, that they contained their provision and stores. The late Lieutenant-colonel Mauvillon, speaking on these Roman camps, asserts, that their rectangular form cannot be made use of at present, on account of the artillery fire. To this assertion we readily subscribe; but a Roman camp, modified according to the modern principles of the art of war, would, in our opinion, be far preferable to the Grecian form of encamping, which has been adopted by the moderns. The camp of Bunzelwitz was a Roman camp, modified according to the principles of globular tactics. Such a camp affords the advantage, that it needs no points of *appui*; for, properly speaking, it has no flanks, and presents to the enemy on every side a front of an equal extent. Let it not be said that the angles are weak, for it is an easy task to render them altogether unassailable, and the enemy, should he attack the angles, may be more severely galled by oblique firing, than if he attacked a side or face.

'The Greeks, although they differed from the Romans in their mode of encamping, their camps forming an oblong square, whose smallest faces or flanks were supported by an eminence, or other natural object, yet they needed large magazines as little as the Romans. Their small corps, a very inconsiderable part of which consisted of horse, could be easily subsisted by foraging and plunder. The wars of these small republics, which if they had agreed and joined hand and heart in their common defence, might have escaped the Roman yoke, and acted a far more glorious part than they did, were mere
piratical

piratical incursions, which kept the troops but a short time in the field, and bore a close resemblance to the petty feuds of the Hurons and Iroquois. The Greeks were, at no period of their history, the great warriors which they boasted to be : and no sooner did they engage in a war against the Romans, than they were undone. Their phalanx, which Frederic the Great has attempted to re-produce in our days, modified according to the principles of modern fire tactics, was immediately annihilated by the legion. We would, however, not be understood by this remark to call in question the tactical knowledge of the Greeks ; they were tacticians in a high degree of perfection, but for this very reason we are at a loss to account for their not having adopted a better order of formation, and better arms, fit to withstand the attacks of the Romans ; nor do we conceive why the reforms proposed by Epaminondas were suffered to die with him.

‘ The Romans and Greeks, therefore, stood not in need of magazines formed without their camps, nor of lines and bases of operations ; but the Medes, Persians, &c. probably needed them on account of their vast armies, numerous horse, and immense baggage (the latter, singular to relate, generally moved in column ;) yet, from their not being obliged to carry about with them either powder, balls, or heavy ordnance, all their operations could be more rapidly executed, and were less clogged by magazines, lines, and bases of operations, than the movements of modern armies. It is this which constitutes the most essential difference between the ancient and modern art of war.’

This extract betrays some great mistakes. The Romans never made use of circular camps, nor such as could be modified into circular camps, according to the principles of what the author is pleased to call *globular tactics*. The camp of a consular army, consisting of two legions and the allies, was an exact square : but when both the consuls, with the four legions and their allies, were assembled together within one intrenchment, the camp was of a rectangular form, vulgarly called an oblong square, inclosing double the area of the former, and having its circuit or perimeter larger by one half. — The assertion is also erroneous that the moderns have adopted the Grecian form of castrametation ; as is the observation that the camps of the Greeks formed an oblong square or rectangle, ‘ whose smallest faces or flanks were supported by an eminence or other natural object.’ The Romans invariably followed the same method of encamping ; the natural consequence of which was that, when the troops on their march approached near enough to discover the place chosen by one of the Tribunes and some of the Centurions for their encampment, they were able to discern at once, and to distinguish by means of the ensign of the consul, all the different parts of the camp ; which, as they always occupied the same relative situations in

it, (each man knowing in what particular street and which part of it he was going to be placed or lodged,) they entered, and went to their own places, with as much regularity as they would have entered the cities from which they came, and have gone to their own houses. In this respect, it was impossible for them to commit any mistake. For the sake of obtaining this order and facility, they willingly submitted to the task of throwing up an intrenchment round the camp, and to other painful labours; and in choosing a situation for it, they were by no means so much guided by the natural strength of the ground, as by its being convenient for wood and water, particularly the latter. The Greeks, on the other hand, pursued a directly contrary method of encamping; for they principally considered the natural strength of the position that was selected for their camp, and accommodated their disposition and arrangement to it; studiously avoiding the labour of throwing up intrenchments, and supposing that works raised by art were never so secure as those which were formed by nature. They were consequently obliged to give not only every kind of figure to their camp, but also to vary the positions of its several parts, according as the place for each was favourable or otherwise. The natural consequence was that the soldier never knew with certainty either his own situation in the camp, or that of the body to which he belonged.

The comparison, also, here drawn between the wars waged by the Grecian Republics and the petty feuds of the Hurons and Iroquois, is truly ridiculous. A block-house or two, or a small palisaded fort, with two or three companies of men, are sufficient to overawe whole tribes of Indians: but the Grecian states, when they heartily co-operated, were irresistible. While they continued united, they bade defiance both to Persia and to Macedon; and they might have mocked the power of Rome also, had not some of them assisted the Romans in conquering the others. They were an enlightened people, and none carried the arts and sciences to a higher degree of excellence. Sparta was reckoned the first school among the antients for military tactics and discipline. Xantippus, who by his superior skill defeated with the Carthaginians the Romans under Regulus, was a Lacedemonian, and bred up in the Spartan discipline. It is truly preposterous, then, in the author, to compare states which he himself allows might have escaped the Roman yoke, had they been heartily united in their common defence, with the tribes of savages in North America. — He is equally under a mistake in asserting that Frederic the Great attempted in our days to reproduce the Grecian phalanx; since no resemblance can be traced between
the

the Prussian tactics and those of the Greeks. — Moreover, his account of the authors who have written on fortification is not only defective to a great degree, but is also very incorrect. It is impossible for any person to form from it an idea of the construction of any of those works which he mentions, much less of the particular parts in which it resembles or differs from the constructions recommended by others. Among the writers on fortification, he enumerates only Marollois, Antoine de Ville, Count Pagan, Baron Coehorn, Scheiter, Blondel, Allain Manisson Mallet, Rosetti, St. Julien, Marchi, Antonio de Herbart, and Montalembert; and he does not shew how any one of their methods is to be constructed, not even that of Vauban, who never published any treatise on the subject.

It is observed that De Ville 'has given to the world a most excellent treatise on fortification, and that his method is styled in most authors the *French method*.' The truth is that it is nothing but a composition of the Italian and Spanish methods, and is therefore usually called the *composed Draught*; the latter of these two differing from it only in having no second flanks and fichant lines of defence, and in not confining (like it) the magnitude of the flanked or saliant angle of the bastion to 90° , or a right angle, in the hexagon and all higher polygons. — It is also remarked that this author's favourite maxim is 'to make the right flanked angle straight and the flank equal to the demi-gorge.' The phrase, 'to make the right flanked angle straight,' is in fact absurd, and conveys no precise idea of any kind. If the writer meant to express any thing by it, he must have intended to say that De Ville's favourite maxim is to make the flanked or saliant angle of the bastion a right angle: — but this is not the case in his square and pentagon, and is true only in his hexagon, and in polygons of a greater number of sides than six. As to the flank, he places it at right angles to the curtain; a position for it which has long been exploded by every able engineer. He constructs outwards.

In this essay, it is also erroneously asserted that Blondel's method is nearly similar to those of Count Pagan. With the same exterior side in the mean fortification of the Count, the tenaille, the face of the bastion, the curtain, and the angle *diminué*, are invariable or the same in all polygons; whereas, in Blondel's method, these are constantly varying, and are very different in different polygons; — when the construction is on a straight line, it allows no curtain at all. His re-entering angles, moreover, are right angles, or the same with those in Montalembert's method, which furnishes nothing but star-figures, with re-entering angles of 90° , and in course saliant angles of only 60° , in any regular polygon under the dodecagon.

We notice these errors in order to prevent the readers of this compilation from being led into mistakes by them, and in the hope that the editor will correct them in any future impression.

In the last essay but one of the first volume, Sir John Sinclair, in considering the point "whether our infantry ought to be all armed alike, or differently," thus briefly expresses his sentiments :

' In forming a system for the constitution of infantry corps, the first point to be considered is, whether they ought to consist of one body of men, armed, dressed, and disciplined alike ; or whether there ought to be, in regard to these important particulars, any material difference. On this head, it is only necessary to observe, that in every country, where war has been an object of attention, it has been found advisable to divide the troops into different bodies, calculated for various purposes, according to the age, the size, the military experience, the weapons, &c. of the various individuals of whom the army was composed. In this manner, it is well known, that the Roman legions were divided into four bodies ; namely, the Velites, or light-armed troops : the Hastati, the Principes, and the Triarii, or veterans ; each of whom were differently armed, and answered different purposes in war. As this plan contributed so much to the success of the Roman arms, it can hardly be doubted, that it ought to be adopted by other nations, so far as modern weapons and the modern principles of warfare will admit of it.'

The worthy Baronet must be very little acquainted with military antiquities, if he supposes that in the Roman Legions the Hastati, the Principes, and the Triarii, were differently armed, and that their success was chiefly owing to that circumstance ; for it is well known that the Hastati and Principes, of whom each legion contained an equal number, were armed exactly alike ; and that the arms and armour of the Triarii, who were only equal to half each of the others in number, differed in nothing from theirs, except in the single circumstance of carrying pikes instead of javelins. The success of the Romans was not owing to the arming of different denominations of troops differently, but to their arms and order of battle being well calculated for every circumstance both of time and place, for which the Grecian and Macedonian phalanxes were not adapted ; and for which, it must be allowed by every person who reflects seriously on the subject, the arms and arrangements of modern troops are still less fitted.

In the 2d volume, the first essay treats on the military institutes of Onosander relative to the duties and qualifications of a General, and well deserves perusal. That part of it, which extends from page 45: to page 127. is occupied with accounts of the battles of Prague, Beuthen, Jemappes, Freyberg, Blenheim, Ramillies, Malplaquet, and Torgau.

At page 317. occurs a poor and meagre essay on reducing military service to methods and principles; — and the same observation is applicable to the tract in page 413. on the utility and formation of saps. To prove the truth of this assertion, we need only lay before our readers the account of the manner of conducting a sap :

‘ It is necessary to employ four miners in order to construct a sap. The head of the sap having been covered by gabions, fascines, sand-bags, iron-forks, hooks, &c. the principal miner enters the trench through an opening which has been previously made in the parapet of the line. But he takes care before hand to arrange his gabion in the best manner he can, by means of his fork and hook, having the point of the stakes above him. He then digs one foot and a half in breadth, to the same proportion in depth, filling his gabion with the dirt which he scoops out, and constantly leaving a space of one foot and a half, at least, between the sap and the gabion, to serve as a berm or foot-path. The first miner has charge of the head of the sap; in proportion as he advances, the one who follows him increases the aperture by six inches, and takes as much in depth; the third and fourth man widen and excavate in the same manner; by which operation the sap gradually obtains three feet in depth to as many in breadth at its opening, with only two feet diameter at the bottom, on account of the talus that is left on the sides of the ditch, from the excavation of which, sufficient earth has been gathered to form an epaulement towards the place to be defended, which is proof against cannon-ball.

‘ When the four first miners grow fatigued, they must be relieved by others. The men that are not immediately employed at the sap, construct the gabions, fascines, &c. that they may be ready for those who have charge of the head.’

In the first place, we must observe that ‘to construct a sap’ is a strange expression, and shews that the author is not acquainted with military phraseology. Next, when he says that a space of one foot and a half at least is always left between the sap and the gabions,—and that the first four sappers leave it three feet wide at top, three feet deep, and only two wide at the bottom,—this description of the excavation, and of the distance at which the gabions are placed from the edge of it, does not by any means accord with that which is thus given by Marshal Vauban :

“ *A l’égard de l’excavation de la sape, voici comme elle se doit conduire. Le premier sapeur creuse un pied et demi de large sur autant de profondeur, laissant un borne de six pouces au pied du gabion, et talusant un peu du même côté.*

“ *Le second élargit de six pouces, et approfondit d’autant; ce qui fait deux pieds de large et autant de profondeur. Le troisième aussi-bien que le quatrième creuse encore un demi-pied, et élargit d’autant, fait les talus, et réduit les sapes à trois pieds de profondeur. et trois pieds de large par le haut, révenant à deux pieds et demi sur le fond, les talus*
parez ;

parez ; ce qui est la mesure que nous demandons pour le rendre par fait."

The assertion that the earth which is *gathered*, as the writer expresses himself, from his excavation, (which is less than that which is specified by Vauban,) is sufficient to form an epaulement towards the place to be defended, that will be proof against cannon-ball, is not only contrary to what that celebrated engineer states, with every sensible writer on the subject, but is likewise manifestly inconsistent with truth. The section of the excavation assigned by the author is only equal to $7\frac{1}{2}$ square feet ; whereas that of the sap mentioned by Vauban contains $8\frac{1}{2}$ superficial feet, which he says furnishes earth enough for filling the gabions and forming a parapet on the side of the place sufficient to resist musketry, but by no means adequate to repel cannon shot. His words are these :

" L'excavation de ces trois pieds de profondeur fournit les terres nécessaires à remplir les gabions, et une masse de parapet, formant un talus à terre courante du côté de la place, qui est rempli de haut en bas, et qui ne peut plus être percé que par le canon."

The present writer is also under a great mistake in asserting, ' that the men not *immediately* employed at the sap *construct* the gabions, fascines, &c. that they may be ready for those who have charge of the head : ' for before the sap is opened, a sufficient supply of gabions, fascines, sand-bags, &c. &c. is always taken to the spot ; and the four sappers, next to those who are conducting the head of the sap, roll or move these materials along to them till it comes to their turn to succeed them, in order that such materials may be always at hand for immediate use.

This volume ends with a short and incomplete description of what the author calls ' the regular Fortification of Fort Querqueville near Cherbourg ; ' which, however, is very irregular.

In Vol. III. p. 77. we meet with a paper intitled ' Of the different systems in Fortification, originally invented by Marshal Vauban, with instructions how to describe and trace them : ' but here is a mistake in the very title. Vauban never invented any system of fortification. In his first method, which he generally used, (indeed every where except at three places,) he borrowed the lengths of the exterior side and perpendicular from Count Pagan. All the other parts of it, the orillon and circular flank excepted, are to be seen in Dijkhuis, who wrote long before Vauban made his appearance on the theatre of life ; and even these exceptions are to be found in other writers, — The author also promises to give instructions for tracing out or constructing Vauban's different methods,

thods, which are three in number : but he only makes this awkward and confused attempt to state the construction of the first ;

‘ Suppose that one of the sides of an hexagon contain one hundred and eighty toises in length, you will raise upon the middle of this side a perpendicular towards the center, which will consist of thirty toises, or the sixth part of the exterior side.

‘ You will draw the lines of defence, which must be indefinitely prolonged towards a given point, through two extremities on the one side of the polygon, and through another given point.

‘ You will take two-sevenths of one side, and carry them to two lines of defence, in order to make the length of the faces belonging to the bastions.

‘ You will place one point of the compass at a given point, and continue to spread it until you reach another specific point. From the first point, taken as the center, and from the second, or interval, you will describe an arch, which will cut the line of defence in a given point. Keeping your compass spread at the same extent, you will take another point of center, and then describe an arch, which will cut the line of defence.

‘ The lines of defence being thus determined in two specific points, and the faces in two others, you have only (in order to obtain the principal trace or line) to join these four points by three straight lines : namely, the extremities of the lines of defence by a line, which will be the curtain ; and the extremities of the faces and the curtain by two other lines, which will constitute the flanks of two demi-bastions. By the same rule observed upon all the other sides of the polygon, you will have the principal trace or line ; this line is called the magistral line.’

This chapter is said to be principally intended for the instruction of beginners : but what information can a young officer, or person beginning to study fortification and military construction, derive from being directed to ‘ prolong indefinitely the lines of defence towards a given point through two extremities on the one side of the polygon, and through another given point,’ without being told what or where either of these given points is. The directions must not only appear confused and unintelligible to a person beginning such studies, but are in reality literally absurd : for the lines of defence are not and cannot possibly be prolonged towards a *given point*.—The remainder of the construction is expressed in a still more confused manner ; and the table in page 81. is not very correct.—At p. 87. the writer confounds *guerites* or sentry-boxes with small gateways. — In the next tract, page 89. a *horn-work* is termed a *crown-work*.

About 84 pages of this volume, from p. 138. to p. 222. are filled with fanciful discussions of the comparative merits of Cavalry, Infantry, Engineers, Artillery, and Light Troops ; and

with imaginary conceptions, rather than substantial or solid information, respecting the characters of the armies of the various powers of Europe at the peace of Amiens in 1802.—Next in succession follows an account of the siege of Gibraltar, taken from Drinkwater's history, which occupies twenty pages.

At p. 266. is inserted an account of the pike, or Britannic spear, by Major Cartwright, which is intitled to the attentive perusal of military men; though we must acknowledge that we give a preference to the Roman gladius, for many situations, particularly in an inclosed country like this, where infantry cannot advance nor retire without frequently breaking into small bodies and exposing their flanks.

A chapter occurs at page 378. of what are called 'Aphorisms and observations illustrative of the art of Fortification.' Instead of precepts, however, it contains little more than definitions, of which several are confusedly worded, and even erroneous. In page 387. l. 5. from the bottom, for 'the angle RH ,' we should read *the angle CRH* ; since a right line cannot contain an angle.

Our limits and other duties do not permit us to point out half the errors which we have detected in this miscellaneous performance; and we must conclude by strongly advising the editor, should he publish another impression of it, to take particular care in the revision and correction of his volumes, if he would prevent young officers who may peruse them from being led into mistakes. In many parts, he seems to be but little acquainted with military language and idiom.—It terminates with a short table of lineal measure.

ART. X. *Zoography*; or, the Beauties of Nature displayed, in select Descriptions from the Animal and Vegetable, with Additions from the Mineral Kingdom: systematically arranged. By W. Wood, F. L. S. Illustrated with Plates, designed and engraved by Mr. William Daniell. 3 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1802. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE acquisition of a fine shell, of a splendid newly-discovered mineral, or of a remarkable and hitherto unknown animal, is the supreme object of anxiety with many who call themselves naturalists; and the successful efforts of industry and wealth, in bringing together the productions of Nature from the various regions of the globe, have often obtained for the mere collector a higher reputation with the multitude, than the most laborious investigations of the careful observer of her laws and economy. The exquisite beauty of form and delicacy of colour in a shell have sometimes placed its envied possessor

in a more distinguished rank, than that which was gained by the indefatigable perseverance of Reaumur in tracing and elucidating the curious history of its formation; and the merits of Haüy and Klaproth, with all their ingenuity and address in the description and analysis of minerals, are not seldom thrown into the shade, when compared with the superficial acquirements of him whose only boast is, that his cabinet abounds with the rare and beautiful objects of the fossil kingdom.

We fear that too much truth belongs to the following observations of the present author: 'The animal is admired for its singularity, the bird for its beautiful plumage, the shell for its varied tints, the plant because it came from some one of our distant colonies, and the mineral for its glittering surface; while the instructive history which is attached to all these different objects, and which would tend to lead us by gentle and pleasing steps to the knowledge of an all-powerful Being, is totally neglected.' Preface, p. x. — Though, however, we do not dissent from the correctness of the author's remarks now quoted, we are not disposed to admit the full extent of the conclusions which he aims at establishing, with respect to the inutility of the labours of the collector in promoting the knowledge of natural history. His pursuits are indeed less dignified than those of the scientific inquirer: but still they are far from being useless; since, independently of the pleasure and admiration which the exhibition of his treasures may occasionally excite, and thus indirectly lead to a more serious perusal of the book of nature, his cabinet may be regarded as a valuable storehouse, from which the philosopher derives the materials of study and generalization. The sole gratification of the miser is the sordid accumulation of wealth for its own sake; while the man of business, from whom he exacts usury for being supplied with the means of enlarging his capital, is thus enabled to give life and vigour to the springs of activity and industry, and to diffuse plenty and comfort around.

The volumes before us are to be considered as a compilation: but the judicious manner in which the whole is executed gives it not a little of the interest of an original composition. Mr. Wood's views are very distinctly explained in the ensuing passages:

'With respect to the work which we have now ventured to lay before the public, it consists of a selection of those objects in natural history, which appeared to us best calculated to excite the attention of those who have any relish for this rational pursuit, and most likely to afford amusement to the many who care but little about the study.'—

'We have not scrupled to adorn our bird with borrowed plumes, and will ingenuously confess, that wherever we have met with ma-

terials to our mind, we have freely made use of them.' — 'It will be but just in this place to confess our obligations to the engaging *Spectacle de la Nature*, since we have taken from that book whatever has suited our purpose.' Preface, p. xiv.

The author's plan seems to be formed somewhat on the model of the work last mentioned : but his speculations and reflections, whether connected with natural history or with natural religion, are in general characterized by sober thought and grave meditation ; while they are free from the frequent sallies of a warm imagination, and the rapturous enthusiasm of the French author.

Vol. I. contains the history of Quadrupeds and Birds. In the arrangement of quadrupeds, the method of Linné is rejected, and that of Ray is adopted, from a repugnance which the author felt in placing the monkey at the head of the brute creation, and thus associating him in some degree with man. On this point we do not wish to appear fastidious. All our arrangements are artificial ; they are the offspring of necessity ; they are intended to facilitate our progress in the study of the phenomena of nature ; and as far as this purpose is served, the advantages of method will be apparent : — but when any class of objects includes only a small number of genera, as is the case with quadrupeds, the arrangement really becomes a matter of inferior importance. — A few pages are occupied with introductory remarks on the general history of Birds ; and especially with respect to their peculiarities of structure, nidification, and incubation. Here, too, the author has an opportunity of making some interesting observations on their manners and instinctive habits. — In the II^d volume, reptiles, fishes, insects, crustaceous and testaceous animals, and zoophytes, are treated in the same way, by selecting the more striking parts of their history ; and the III^d volume is devoted to the history of such plants and minerals as Mr. Wood found would suit his purpose.

On the whole, we congratulate the writer on his success in the choice of subjects which he has introduced to render his work interesting. His information also is generally derived from the most authentic sources ; and where he abridges, or employs his own language, he writes in a very agreeable and perspicuous style. We cannot, however, avoid expressing surprise that a man of so much soundness of judgment, and acute discrimination, should implicitly believe in the fabulous story of the *Bobun Upas*, or poison-tree of Java. In the harmonious strains of Darwin, this tree makes a conspicuous figure as a fine poetical fiction ; and in that situation we have no desire to disturb it : but it is strange that the author should not have known that the existence of such a tree has been completely disproved

disproved by the satisfactory inquiries of Sir George Staunton, and others who accompanied Lord Macartney in his embassy to China.—We must also take notice of the incongruity of the title which Mr. Wood has affixed to his publication. Zoography, or Zoology, in the strict and ordinary acceptation, signifies a description or discourse of animals, and is never employed to include even plants; so that one-third of the present work is not comprehended under the title.

The numerous engravings which accompany these volumes are designed with truly characteristic spirit and correctness, and are executed with not less taste, in acqua-tinta, by Mr. Daniell. We should be glad to see this ingenious artist extending his labours in similar illustrations of the various departments of natural history.

ART. XI. *The Vision of Don Roderick*, a Poem. By Walter Scott, Esq. 4to. pp. 132. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

THIS hasty production of a Poet, otherwise not celebrated for the patient revision of his labours*, is dedicated to the Committee of Subscribers for the relief of the Portuguese sufferers; and the profits of the sale of its copy-right are placed at the disposal of that benevolent society. The benevolent intentions of the author would disarm criticism, were it possible for criticism to impede the present popularity of Mr. Scott's compositions, and were his immediate purpose dependent on the circulation of his poem: but, as we are safe from any apprehensions of obstructing the designs of charity, we shall proceed with our usual freedom to praise and to censure, as we see cause for the discharge of either duty.

The plan of the poem is concisely stated by its author in an advertisement prefixed; and we extract the principal part of that advertisement, omitting some *private* reasons which Mr. Scott offers for the imperfections of the performance. We are sorry for any cause which diminishes the excellence of his works, in any degree or manner:

'The following Poem is founded upon a Spanish Tradition, particularly detailed in the notes; but bearing, in general, that Don Roderick, the last Gothic King of Spain, when the invasion of the Moors was impending, had the temerity to descend into an ancient vault, near Toledo, the opening of which had been denounced as fatal to the Spanish monarchy. The legend adds, that his rash curiosity

* See our Review of the *Lady of the Lake*, Vol. lxii. p. 178,

was mortified by an emblematical representation of those Saracens, who, in the year 714, defeated him in battle, and reduced Spain under their dominion. I have presumed to prolong the vision of the revolutions of Spain down to the present eventful crisis of the Peninsula; and to divide it, by a supposed change of scene, into three periods. The first of these represents the invasion of the Moors, the defeat and death of Roderick, and closes with the peaceful occupation of the country by the victors. The second period embraces the state of the Peninsula, when the conquests of the Spaniards and Portuguese in the East and West Indies had raised to the highest pitch the renown of their arms; sullied, however, by superstition and cruelty. An allusion to the inhumanities of the Inquisition terminates this picture. The last part of the poem opens with the state of Spain previous to the unparalleled treachery of Buonaparte; gives a sketch of the usurpation attempted upon that unsuspecting and friendly kingdom, and terminates with the arrival of the British succours. It may be farther proper to mention that the object of the poem is less to commemorate or detail particular incidents, than to exhibit a general and impressive picture of the several periods brought upon the stage.

The note to which Mr. S. alludes, as containing a particular detail of the tradition in question, is for the most part a translation of a very amusing passage in a Spanish history; and though we have not room to transcribe this extract, we recommend it to the attention of all lovers of romance. It precludes, indeed, any great claim to originality in the poem before us, but it establishes still farther that fact, of which Mr. Scott's admirers cannot be too fully aware, that no living writer possesses the art of adapting old inventions to his own poetical purposes with superior, if with equal adroitness.—While we are referring to the subject of the notes, we must observe that they afford considerable superfluous information, few in number as they are. The short account of the death of Colonel Cameron, at Fuentes d'Onoro, is interesting enough: but the long extract from the Edinburgh Annual Register for 1809 is rather too daring a specimen of book-making. The quotation, also, from the prophet Joel, (not to mention the *sanguine spirit of interpretation* which has applied a part of that prophecy to Massena's retreat!!) is an equally offensive example of the same *unpoetical* bias. We could say much more on this degrading topic; for the whole appearance of the book is that of a *chef d'œuvre*

“ In the lucrative taste
Of wide printing, and waste;
Where there's room on the margin
To write poems as large in,
And each line, like a section,
Seems to yawn for—*connection*.”

In fact, each page holds only a stanza and a half; an arrangement which, besides its obvious intent of eking out a meagre volume, offends the eye of the fastidious judge of typography. The *beauty of the page*, to speak technically, is destroyed by this division. However, it may truly be called the consummation of the *art* of printing; and, indeed, Campbell's Gertrude of Wyoming keeps it in countenance. How would poor Spenser stare, could he behold this modern division of his stanza! not to mention any other causes for his astonishment, in the writings of his imitators—we beg pardon—we mean those original poets who have adopted the measure of Spenser's verse.

An introduction precedes 'the Vision,' in which the poet eulogizes Lord Wellington in some animated strains, but declares that it would demand a nobler spirit of poetry than now survives the decay of ages, to render justice to that victorious General:

' But we, weak minstrels of a laggard day,
Skill'd but to imitate an elder page,
Timid and raptureless, can we repay
The debt thou claim'st in this exhausted age?
Thou givest our lyres a theme, that might engage
Those that could send thy name o'er sea and land,
While sea and land shall last; for Homer's rage
A theme; a theme for Milton's mighty hand—
How much unmeet for us, a faint degenerate band!

' Ye mountains stern! within whose rugged breast
The friends of Scottish freedom found repose;
Ye torrents! whose hoarse sounds have soothed their rest,
Returning from the field of vanquish'd foes;
Say, have ye lost each wild majestic close,
That erst the choir of bards or druids sung,
What time their hymn of victory arose,
And Cattaeth's glens with voice of triumph rung,
And mystic Merlin harp'd, and grey-hair'd Llywarch sung.

' Oh! if your wilds such minstrelsy retain,
As sure your changeful gales seem oft to say,
When sweeping wild and sinking soft again,
Like trumpet-jubilee, or harp's wild sway;
If ye can echo such triumphant lay,
Then lend the note to him has loved you long!
Who pious gather'd each tradition grey,
That floats your solitary wastes along,
And with affection vain gave them new voice in song.

' For not till now, how oft soe'er the task
Of truant verse hath lighten'd graver care,
From muse or sylvan was he wont to ask,
In phrase poetic, inspiration fair;
Careless he gave his numbers to the air,—

They came unsought for, if applauses came ;
 Nor for himself prefers he now the prayer ;
 Let but his verse besit a hero's fame,
 Immortal be the verse !—forgot the poet's name.

‘ Hark, from yon misty cairn their answer tost :
 “ Minstrel ! the fame of whose romantic lyre,
 Capricious swelling now, may soon be lost,
 Like the light flickering of a cottage fire ;
 If to such task presumptuous thou aspire,
 Seek not from us the meed to warrior due ;
 Age after age has gather'd son to sire,
 Since our grey cliffs the din of conflict knew,
 Or, pealing through our vales, victorious bugles blew,

“ Decayed our old traditional lore,
 Save where the lingering fays renew their ring,
 By milk-maid seen beneath the hawthorn hear,
 Or round the marge of Minchmore's haunted spring ;
 Save where their legends grey-hair'd shepherds sing,
 That now scarce win a listening ear but thine,
 Of feuds obscure, and border ravaging,
 And rugged deeds recount in rugged line,
 Of moonlight foray made on Teviot, Tweed, or Tyne.

“ No ! search romantic lands”—

We certainly wish that the poet would take the advice of his native mountains and torrents, and ‘ search romantic lands’ for a longer and more varied tale. We should hail its appearance, *in due season*, with genuine satisfaction :—but we confess that we have had enough of ‘ rugged deeds in rugged line,’

‘ And moonlight foray made on Teviot, Tweed, or Tyne.’

As to the assertion in the above extract, respecting ‘ applauses coming unsought for,’ carelessness concerning fame, and *the like*, we assure the author that we are as much convinced of the sincerity of these phrases,—as we ever were of the accuracy of any similar statement.

It needs not be said that the mountains and torrents, who form the “ high and mighty” council of the poet, dismiss him to Spain :

—“ cherished still by that unchanging race,
 Are themes for minstrelsy more high than thine ;
 Of strange tradition many a mystic trace,
 Legend and vision, prophecy and sign ;
 Where wonders wild of arabesque combine
 With Gothic imagery of darker shade,
 Forming a model meet for minstrel line.

Go, seek such theme ?”—The Mountain Spirit said :
 With filial awe I heard—I heard, and I obeyed.’

Most exactly has Mr. Scott copied his model. His, assuredly, is the 'minstrel line,'

'Where wonders wild of arabesque combine
With Gothic imagery of darker shade.'

We will not, however, interrupt our quotations of passages which we think are peculiarly deserving of attention, by any minute verbal criticisms; reserving our remarks on these points for the remainder of our critique.

We have often had occasion to praise Mr. Scott's extraordinary genius for descriptive poetry. In our opinion, scarcely any poet of any age or country has excelled him, in bringing before our sight the very scene in the world around us which he is describing,—in giving a reality of existence to every object on which he dwells; and it is on such occasions, especially suited as they seem to the habits of his mind, that his style itself catches a character of harmony, which is far from being universally its own. How vivid, yet how soft, is the following picture!

'Rearing their crests amid the cloudless skies,
And darkly clustering in the pale moonlight,
Toledo's holy towers and spires arise,
As from a trembling lake of silver white;
Their mingled shadows intercept the sight
Of the broad burial-ground outstretched below,
And nought disturbs the silence of the night;
All sleeps in sullen shade, or silver glow,
All save the heavy swell of Teio's ceaseless flow.'

The stanza which succeeds completes the general description of this night-scene, and we therefore insert it; premising, however, that we deem it very inferior, in point of execution, to the foregoing:

'All save the rushing swell of Teio's tide,
Or, distant heard, a courser's neigh or tramp;
Their changing rounds as watchful horsemen ride,
To guard the limits of King Roderick's camp.
For, through the river's night-fog rolling damp,
Was many a proud pavilion dimly seen,
Which glimmer'd back, against the moon's fair lamp,
Tissues of silk and silver twisted sheen,
And standards proudly pitch'd, and warders armed between.'

The description of King Roderick, before his father-confessor, is well finished; and the dark allusion to his guilt in the violation of Florinda, daughter of Count Julian, (which event primarily occasioned the conquest of Spain by the Moors,) is poetically introduced: but the picture of the scene of 'the Vision' is, perhaps, the best passage in the book, and we therefore

fore extract it at full length. The prelate and the king (who, we may observe, *en passant*, remind us of the Monk and Deloraine in "the Lay of the Last Minstrel,") have proceeded to the 'ancient gateway' which closes the entrance of the fated vault. After an ineffectual remonstrance on the part of the holy man,

—— ' the key the desperate King essay'd,
 Low-muttered thunders the Cathedral shook,
 And twice he stopped, and twice new effort made,
 Till the huge bolts rolled back, and the loud hinges bray'd.
 ' Long, large, and lofty, was that vaulted hall ;
 Roof, walls, and floor, were all of marble stone,
 Of polished marble, black as funeral pall,
 Carved o'er with signs and characters unknown.
 A paly light, as of the dawning, shone
 Through the sad bounds, but whence they could not spy ;
 For window to the upper air was none ;
 Yet, by that light, Don Roderick could descry
 Wonders that ne'er till then were seen by mortal eye.
 ' Grim centinels, against the upper wall,
 Of molten bronze, two Statues held their place ;
 Massive their naked limbs, their stature tall,
 Their frowning foreheads golden circles grace.
 Moulded they seemed for kings of giant race,
 That lived and sinned before the avenging flood ;
 This grasped a scythe, that rested on a mace ;
 This spread his wings for flight, that pondering stood,
 Each stubborn seemed and stern, immutable of mood.
 ' Fixed was the right-hand giant's brazen look
 Upon his brother's glass of shifting sand,
 As if it's ebb he measured by a book,
 Whose iron volume loaded his huge hand ;
 In which was wrote of many a falling land,
 Of empires lost, and kings to exile driven ;
 And o'er that pair their names in scroll expand—
 " Lo, DESTINY and TIME ! to whom by Heaven
 The guidance of the earth is for a season given."—
 ' Even while they read, the sand-glass wastes away ;
 And, as the last and lagging grains did creep,
 That right-hand giant 'gan his club upsway,
 As one that startles from a heavy sleep,
 Full on the upper wall the mace's sweep
 At once descended with the force of thunder,
 And, hurtling down at once, in crumbled heap,
 The marble boundary was rent asunder,
 And gave to Roderick's view new sights of fear and wonder,
 ' For they might spy, beyond that mighty breach,
 Realms as of Spain in visioned prospect laid,

Castles

Castles and towers, in due proportion each,
As by some skilful artist's hand pourtray'd :
Here, crossed by many a wild Sierra's shade,
And boundless plains that tire the traveller's eye ;
There, rich with vineyard and with olive-glade,
Or deep-embrowned by forests huge and high,
Or washed by mighty streams, that slowly murmured by.

' And here, as erst upon the antique stage
Passed forth the bands of masquers trimly led,
In various forms, and various equipage,
While fitting strains the hearer's fancy fed ;
So, to sad Roderick's eye in order spread,
Successive pageants filled that mystic scene,
Shewing the fate of battles ere they bled,
And issue of events that had not been ;
And ever and anon strange sounds were heard between.
' First shrilled an unrepeatd female shriek !'—

The subsequent conflict of the Christians and the Moors, shadowed out as it is in this visionary perspective, excites a lively interest ; and ' Roderick's kingly likeness,' on his well-known horse, flying from the combat, and lost in the torrents of a distant river, affords an admirable hint for scenic exhibition. This remark had occurred to us, before we saw a play of Calderon mentioned in the notes, as being partly founded on the legend before us. Let us suggest it to our theatres, in their present anxiety to gratify the taste of the public for melodram and pantomime.

We now come to the second period of the Vision ; and we cannot avoid noticing with much commendation the dexterity and graceful ease with which the first two scenes are connected. Without abruptness, or tedious apology for transition, they melt into each other with very harmonious effect ; and we strongly recommend this example of skill, perhaps exhibited without any effort, to the imitation of contemporary poets. The state of Spain under the Moors is briefly sketched, and the scene changes ; —

' So passed that pageant. Ere another came,
The visionary scene was wrapped in smoke,
Whose sulph'rous wreaths were crossed by sheets of flame ;
With every flash a bolt explosive broke,
Till Roderick deemed the fiends had burst their yoke,
And waved 'gainst heaven the infernal gonfalone !
For War a new and dreadful language spoke,
Never by ancient warrior heard or known ;
Light'ning and smoke her breath, and thunder was her tone.

' From the dim landscape roll the clouds away—
The Christians have regained their heritage ;

Before

Before the Cross has waned the Crescent's ray,
 And many a monastery decks the stage;
 And lofty church, and low-brow'd hermitage.
 The land obeys a Hermit and a Knight,—
 The Genii these of Spain for many an age;
 This clad in sackcloth, that in armour bright,
 And that was VALOUR named, this BIGOTRY was hight.'

The subsequent stanzas, which prolong the personification of Valour and Bigotry, and continue to describe the condition of the Peninsula after its recovery from the Moors, are pleasing in design; and the transient outline which we obtain of the increase of Spanish power and splendour, from the acquisitions of Spain in the New World, is afforded us by a master's pencil.

The opening of the third period of the Vision is, perhaps necessarily, more abrupt than that of the second. No circumstance, equally marked with the alteration in the whole system of antient warfare, could be introduced in this compartment of the poem. Yet, when we have been told that 'Valour had relaxed his ardent look,' and that 'Bigotry' was 'softened,' we are reasonably prepared for what follows:

'Grey Royalty, grown impotent of toil,
 Let the grave sceptre slip his lazy hold,
 And careless saw his rule become the spoil
 Of a loose Female and her Minion bold;
 But peace was on the cottage and the fold,
 From court intrigue, from bickering faction far;
 Beneath the chesnut tree Love's tale was told;
 And to the tinkling of the light guitar,
 Sweet stooped the western sun, sweet rose the evening star.

'As that sea-cloud, in size like human hand
 When first from Carmel by the Tishbite seen,
 Came slowly overshadowing Israel's land,
 Awhile, perchance, bedecked with colours sheen,
 While yet the sunbeams on its skirts had been,
 Limning with purple and with gold its shroud,
 Till darker folds obscured the blue serene,
 And blotted heaven with one broad sable cloud—
 Then sheeted rain burst down, and whirlwinds howled aloud;—

'Even so upon that peaceful scene was poured,
 Like gathering clouds, full many a foreign band,
 And HZ, their Leader, wore in sheath his sword,
 And offered peaceful front and open hand;
 Veiling the perjured treachery he planned,
 By friendship's zeal and honour's specious guise,
 Until he won the passes of the land;
 Then, burst were honour's oath, and friendship's ties!
 He clutched his vulture-grasp, and called fair Spain his prize.

'A

' An Iron Crown his anxious forehead bore ;
 And well such diadem his heart became,
 Who ne'er his purpose for remorse gave o'er,
 Or checked his course for piety or shame ;
 Who, trained a soldier, deemed a soldier's fame
 Might flourish in the wreath of battles won,
 Though neither truth nor honour decked his name ;
 Who, placed by fortune on a Monarch's throne,
 Recked not of Monarch's faith, or Mercy's kingly tone.'

Here we must beg leave to stop in our citation of the passage which describes the atrocious invasion of Spain. We are as ready as any of our countrymen can be to designate that act by its proper epithets : but we must decline to join in the author's declamation against the low birth of the Invader ; and we cannot help reminding Mr. Scott that *such* a topic of censure is unworthy of him, both as a poet and as a Briton.

We pass on to the landing of the English on the Peninsula, and transcribe the whole passage ; which is vigorous and glowing, and which discriminates, with a just patriotism, the sons of the Thistle, the Shamrock, and the Rose.

' It was a dread, yet spirit-stirring sight !
 The billows foamed beneath a thousand oars,
 Fast as they land the red-cross ranks unite,
 Legions on legions brightening all the shores.
 Then banners rise, and cannon-signal roars,
 Then peals the warlike thunder of the drum,
 Thrills the loud fife, the trumpet-flourish pours,
 And patriot hopes awake, and doubts are dumb,
 For, bold in Freedom's cause, the bands of Ocean come !

' A various host they came—whose ranks display
 Each mode in which the warrior meets the fight,
 The deep battalion locks its firm array,
 And meditates his aim the marksman light ;
 Far glance the lines of sabres flashing bright,
 Where mounted squadrons shake the echoing mead,
 Lacks not artillery breathing flame and night,
 Nor the fleet ordnance whirl'd by rapid steed,
 That rivals lightning's flash in ruin and in speed.

' A various host—from kindred realms they came,
 Brethren in arms, but rivals in renown—
 For yon fair bands shall merry England claim,
 And with their deeds of valour deck her crown.
 Her's their bold port, and her's their martial frown,
 And her's their scorn of death in freedom's cause,
 Their eyes of azure, and their locks of brown,
 And the blunt speech that bursts without a pause,
 And freeborn thoughts, which league the Soldier with the Laws.

' And

' And O ! loved warriors of the Minstrel's land !
 Yonder your bonnets nod, your tartans wave !
 The rugged form may mark the mountain band,
 And harsher features, and a mien more grave ;
 But ne'er in battle-field throbb'd heart so brave
 As that which beats beneath the Scottish plaid,
 And when the pibroch bids the battle rave,
 And level for the charge your arms are laid,
 Where lives the desperate foe, that for such onset staid !

' Hark ! from yon stately ranks what laughter rings,
 Mingling wild mirth with war's stern minstrelsy,
 His jest while each blithe comrade round him flings,
 And moves to death with military glee :
 Boast, Erin, boast them ! tameless, frank, and free,
 In kindness warm, and fierce in danger known,
 Rough Nature's children, humorous as she :
 And He, yon Chieftain—strike the proudest tone
 Of thy bold harp, green Isle !—the Hero is thine own.'

The stanzas which follow, and conclude ' the Vision,' are, in our judgment, very unworthy of their place :

' Now on the scene Vimeira *should* be shown,' &c. &c.

* * * *

' But shall fond fable mix with heroes' praise ?' &c. &c.

This is a sort of lame finale to a magic-lantern-exhibition, leaving the spectators in pain and doubt as to the mode of their own departure, as well as that of the characters in the scene. Mr. S. does not recur to the authorized stage-practice of " exit, *kneeling* ;" or the appearance of a beef-eater, commanding the *Dramatis Personæ* " to lay down their swords, in the Queen's Name !" — he merely cries, ' Pass !' with the Conjuror, and tells us — ' they are gone !' We are bound to believe him.

The stanzas intitled the ' Conclusion,' which are as completely detached from the poem as the ' Introduction,' commemorate Bonaparte's vain threats of driving the English into the sea, and the retreat and discomfiture of Massena. Even the battle of Albuera *happened in time* for a stanza in this sweeping tail-piece ; which, we hope, might have included some additional successes, had its publication been a little longer delayed. Eager, however, as the author is to notice contemporary glories, such a delay would not have squared with the design of that publication ; a design, of which we must once more express our warm applause. We have only to mention that the tributes to Beresford, to Cameron, to Cadogan, and to Graham, which occur in this portion of the volume,

" Present

"Present the meed which Marlbro' fail'd to gain ;"

and from the passage dedicated to the praise of the last-named soldier, we extract the following lines :

'Nor be his praise o'erpast who strove to hide
Beneath the warrior's vest affection's wound,
Whose wish, Heaven for his country's weal denied ;
Danger and fate he sought, but glory found.
From clime to clime, where'er war's trumpets sound,
The wanderer went ; yet, Caledonia ! still
Thine was his thought in march and tented ground ;
He dreamed 'mid Alpine cliffs of Athole's hill,
And heard in Ebro's roar his Lyndoch's lovely rill.'

—" *Dulces reminiscitur Argos !*"—We confess that we prefer such an allusion as the above, when we find it in a poem, to the discovery of it in a parliamentary speech.

Our readers will now have been amply enabled to form their own judgment of the merits and the defects of the present poem, If we are again called to subjoin our general sentiments respecting the claims of Mr. Scott to the high station of popular favour in which he stands, we have little to remark that we have not often remarked before, on the leading features of his poetic character. Nature has done every thing for him : Art has added much : he abounds in cultivated genius ; and he wants nothing (we speak it "in sorrow rather than in anger") but a more correct and more exalted taste :—a taste that would at once impel him to the choice of some noble subject, worthy of his highest mood of enthusiasm, and would chastise his style by purer models of composition. Must not every judicious admirer of his excellence, every friend of his genius, be ready to exclaim—"Oh ! that you *could* be called,

"— *meritò, puri sermonis amator !*
Fortibus atque utinam scriptis adjecta foret vox
Attica, ut equato virtus polleret honore
Cùm Gracis, neque in hæc despectus parte jaceres !
*Unum hoc maceror et doleo tibi deesse."**

We must now proceed to establish the justice of our censure, and too clearly to manifest the reason of our regret. The faults which we are about to specify (numerous as they may appear, and certain as we are that in regard to many of them our readers will agree with our strictures,) are really only a portion of those which have obtruded themselves on our notice in our second perusal of the poem. At the first reading, Mr.

* *Cæsar in Terentium, — paululùm mutatus.*

Scott always captivates too much by his native energy and spirit, to allow the full exercise of cool judgment.

— 'Each loud trumpet-change
That clangs to Britain victory, to Portugal revenge.'

Introduction. Page 3.

'To say nothing of the inharmonious pause in this Alexandrine, how are we to pass over the affectation of repeated compound substantives, like 'trumpet-change;' or its idle rhyme, 'revenge,' which occurs again in this short poem? 'A choir of bards or druids *flinging a close*,' page 5., is any thing but English; and a poet's 'romantic lyre' which

'Capricious swelling now, may soon be lost,'
is ridiculously said to be

'Like the light *flickering* of a cottage fire.' Page 7.

The continuation of the passage which we extracted at page 8. (ending, 'No! search romantic lands!')

— 'where the near Sun
Gives with *unstinted boon* ethereal flame,'

is truly execrable in phraseology. '*Unstinted boon*' is more awkward and prosaic than any expression which we at present remember, even among the laborious strugglings of blank verse to raise its language on the stilts of poetry.

'The blended ranks of England, Portugal, and Spain,' p. 9.
is a sort of geographical Alexandrine, as unmusical in its rhythm as it is unpoetical in its expression.

'There of Numantian fire the *swarthy spark*
Still kindles in the sunburnt native's eye,' page 10.

is perfectly unintelligible, considered as sense: but, regarded as it ought to be, it is distinct enough. 'Gainst,' for *against*, ibid. is low and familiar, as is 'gan' for *began*, afterward. 'Moonlight,' page 13. pronounced as an Iambic, is a common fault of the ballad style, but we wish that it did not here disfigure a very beautiful passage, as it also does in the "Lay of the Last Minstrel." *Tramp* and *camp*, and *damp* and *lamp*, page 14., are not pleasing as closely following rhymes.

'Fear *tame* a monarch's brow, remorse a warrior's look,' p. 17.
is an unmeaning antithesis.

'The old man's faded cheek waxed yet more pale,
As many a secret sad the King *beuray'd*.'— Ibid.

The first of these lines is in the true "Tales of *Wonder"-man-

* Let "Glenfinlas" be for ever excepted from any censure attached to its early companions. It certainly falsifies the old adage, *Noscitur à sociis*.

ner; where the slow and thrilling pronunciation of the reader is intended to help out the limping poetry of the writer; and in the second line, why, in the name of Rabelais, is 'be-wray'd' used instead of "betray'd?"

The 'Grim Centinels, against the upper wall,' page 22. notwithstanding the general merit of the passage, rather remind us of the clock-figures at St. Dunstan's Church. 'Was wrote,' page 23. would have excited a smile or a frown in our countenances, had not the New School decided that grammar is out of the question in genuine poetry.

— 'Oe'r that pair their names in scroll expand,' Ibid,

irresistibly suggests to our recollection the usual expedient for explaining the plot of the drama at Sadler's Wells:—but, lest this our recollection should offend Mr. Scott, we must assure him that we do not remember any such word as 'upsway.' Ibid.

'The fate of battles, ere they bled,' page 25. we are too dull to understand: but we are sure that such a collection of new compound words and outlandish phrases, as that which fills the following stanza and several others, is less "dignified than entertaining:"—

'Then answered kettle-drum, and Atabal,*
Gong-peal, and cymbal-clank, the ear appal,
The Tecbir war-cry, and the Lelies yell.'—25, 26.

It must be highly gratifying to Mr. Scott's readers to understand that he has the authority of Mr. William Stuart Rose for the poetical use of the word 'Lely!' a Mohammedan shout. We want nothing but

"Roderick Vigh Alpine Dhu, ho, ieroc!"
(Lady of the Lake.)

to render the concert complete.

— 'Menials to their misbelieving foes,
'Castile's young nobles held forbidden wine,' page 28.

is not a very intelligible mode of telling the reader that the Spaniards were cup-bearers to the Moors, whose religion interdicted the use of wine. The stanza following (page 29.) begins with a spirited description of Don Roderick's grief and indignation at the degrading sight of his enslaved country:

'How fares Don Roderick? e'en as one who spies
Flames dart their glare o'er midnight's sable twof,' &c. &c.

* Atabal,—a Moorish tabour. Dryden, we are aware, uses this word; and Shakspeare, and others, have the adverb "furbly," but we are not enamoured of either.

but such words as *woof* and *aloof*, *proof* and *roof*, should not rhyme in the same stanza; in which also *grief*, *chief*, and *relief*, occur, as a *relief* to the ear! This is mere idleness. It cannot surely be a defect in musical ear.

The succeeding stanza sounds big with 'timbrels,' 'rebecks,' 'bell-deck'd dancers,' 'bazars,' and 'jerrids;' and shortly afterward, page 34 we are beset with the 'crowns of Caciques,' and the 'aigrettes' of 'Omrahs.' — Such things and persons, we shall be told, must be mentioned, if occasion arises: they must: but do not let them be crowded together, as if the writer imagined that some charm was possessed by these less common terms, beyond that which is inherent in the more ordinary phrases and images of poetry.

'Mozo,' and 'Muchacha,' page 35. being equivalent, as we are told by the author, to our phrases of lad and lass, are absurdly used in an English poem. 'Gore-moisten'd,' page 41. is a horrible compound. 'In act to fly,' page 43. is as bad as "in act to go." See Campbell's *Gertrude of Wyoming*. 'Tempest-scud' is another instance of the fondness which both these authors entertain for such chain-shot substantives. 'Lacks not artillery,' page 51. is an awkward compliment to the Board of Ordnance. 'Whirl'd by rapid steed,' 'rivals lightning's flash,' *ibid.*, and 'rich with vine and flock,' page 58. may be noticed among numerous instances of Mr. Scott's perseverance in that leading peculiarity of his style, the omission of the article before the noun, and the substitution of the singular for the plural number. The epithet 'wrackful,' in page 60, is a new acquaintance to us, but may be familiar to Mr. Scott. 'Unfoughten,' page 62. is an obsolete and unpoetical, if an authorized word. The ironical taunt, of 'Honour's Fountain' being foredoomed to clear the stain from the *dishonoured* arms of Massena, is better than the pun which conveys it.

'Oh! for a verse of tumult and of flame?' page 65.

is worthy of Nat. Lee.—*Fame* and *Fame*, *ibid.* rhyme together, unless the printer has in one case substituted *fame* for *name*, which we conclude must have occurred.—'Shivered my harp,' p. 66. for "be shivered," is not only an inadmissible licence, but reminds us of the nautical phrase, "shiver my timbers;" and the parenthesis, page 68,

("With Spenser's parable I close my tale")

is worthy of the——Bellman.

Why must we be compelled to condemn errors, and instances of idleness, which might so easily be avoided? — but we have spoken on this subject until we are tired, and must

bid adieu to Don Roderick. We are assured, as we premised, that the great merits of its author have so won upon the public, as to make them for the present overlook all his faults. Would that we had equal hopes of succeeding in our repeated and earnest endeavours to give a nobler impulse to his genius!

ART. XII. *Sketches of the internal State of France.* By M. Faber. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 300. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1811.

WE are informed, in the preface to this volume, that its author is by birth a German, and respectable both by family and education; that, being seized with the prevailing ardour for democracy at the beginning of the French Revolution, he enlisted himself with enthusiasm in the service of the new Republic: but that, after having passed a number of years in official functions, remorse at continuing an agent in the hands of despotism, and despair of any political change for the better, induced him to abandon his adopted country in the year 1807, and take refuge at St. Petersburg. In this retreat, he composed a work on the internal state of France, consisting of two volumes, only one of which was printed when the all-powerful interference of Bonaparte procured an order from the Emperor Alexander for the suppression of the second. The circulation of the first also was speedily arrested on the continent: but a copy having been conveyed to England, a translation has been prepared with all possible expedition, and is now submitted to the public. It is ushered in by a warm commendation from the pen of a writer of kindred feelings, Mr. Walsh, of the United States, whose eloquent effusions on subjects of the same description we have already had occasion to report*, and will again soon call for our notice†.

After some introductory remarks on the inability under which the French people have uniformly laboured, of interfering to guide the course of the Revolution, and on the horror with which they contemplated it, M. Faber pronounces that the nation, during the present generation at least, will never be persuaded to be instrumental in effecting a change of government. It is from the army alone that any attempts of that nature will proceed; and to make the army declare itself, it must be won by a General who bears the laurels of victory, and who has acquired the entire confidence of the soldiery. All that can be expected from the people is to look on and follow. Impressed

* See Rev. Vol. lxi. N. S. p. 299.

† See the present *Monthly Catalogue*.

with the melancholy scenes of former years, they dread any thing which threatens to revive them ; and, deceived by one party after another, they have learned to view all public men with distrust and indifference. Under a temper so passive, and so favourable to the encroachments of arbitrary power, we need scarcely wonder at their acquiescence in Bonaparte's progressive acts of tyranny. The sole objects of his administration, says M. Faber, are to raise men and money ; and the simple principle for the regulation of his servants, whether civil or military, in the pursuit of these purposes, is "to take but never to give." The medium through which demands are made on the people is that of circular letters, addressed in the first instance by the Minister, whether of Police, of Finance, or of the Interior, to the departmental Prefects, by whom a new letter is forthwith transmitted to the Sub-prefects, and by them again to the Mayors. The burden of these successive epistles is the urgency of the public service, and the devotion of the national functionaries to his Imperial Majesty. Vehemence of expression being accounted a test of loyalty, each strives to outdo the other in strength of colouring ; and the chief requisite of a civil servant of the French government seems to be a fluency in such compositions. A knowledge of the general doctrines of political economy, and even of local interests, would be misplaced in men who can have no hopes of originating any propositions with success, and whose duty is merely to give effect to the demands of government. Their situation, and the well known temper of their Ruler, forbid the exercise of any discretionary power ; and no one, whether prefect, subprefect, or mayor, dares to go beyond the circular-letter. The unavoidable consequence of such a state of things is to render even the most worthy men, who happen to fill public situations, cold and indifferent in the performance of their services.

The calculating policy of Bonaparte is not less apparent in his civil than in his military arrangements. To make the prefects wholly subservient to his will, he conferred on them salaries of 700l., 1000l., and even 1400l. sterling a year ; sums which in France are equivalent to more than twice the amount in this country ; and, that he might connect attachment in civil duties with the support of his influence in the military department, he bestowed most of the prefectures on Generals. Another of his political maxims is never to appoint a prefect to a department in which he was born, or in which he possesses property ; a rule which might be recommended by a virtuous legislator under a belief that exemption from local partialities outweighs the disadvantage of want of local knowledge, but which is adopted by Bonaparte with no other view than

than that of removing any consideration which might oppose an absolute subserviency to his orders. As the prefect is, moreover, aware that he shall not remain long in the same department, he is induced to look in every thing to the interest of government; to do all for the sovereign and nothing for the subject.—Another regulation, of which it is more difficult to trace the motive, is the injunction on the prefects to make an annual circuit in their departments. Were these journeys performed without previous notice, they might conduce to increased knowledge in the inspector, and to increased vigilance in his subordinates, but at present they are mere visits of parade, announced beforehand, and productive of nothing but expence to the department. As it can be no part of Bonaparte's policy to approximate his people to their governors, we are at a loss to trace the origin of this regulation to any other notion than the vulgar idea that personal visitation is necessary to the acquisition of information; as if the objects which strike the eye in travelling were the same as those which should occupy the meditations of a prefect in his closet.—Amid the multiplied scenes of depredation which are unfolded in the present work, it is some satisfaction to find that the prefects are comparatively guiltless, and that their gains are derived rather from economy than rapacity. A similar plea cannot be urged in behalf of their secretaries, whose appointments are sought with great avidity, and who are by no means scrupulous in laying the public under contribution :

‘Descending from the prefects,’ says M. Faber, ‘to the sub-prefects, we find the same thing only in a different proportion. The sub-prefects, who are likewise paid by Bonaparte, are blind instruments of the superior power. They are mere clerks, indeed we might say mere copying-machines. They receive the circulars from the prefects, and forward them to the mayors of their canton. Their whole duty usually consists in adding some exclamatory expression.’—‘These sub-prefects are wheels in the great machine of administration, which rather impede than accelerate its movements. The only operation in which they are actively employed is the conscription. This matter they are obliged to push in person in every commune of their district. Thus the places of sub-prefects are very bad ones : little or no power; odious, or merely formal duties; little consideration; small salaries, and a great deal of parade. The mayors, though inferior in rank, are officers of much more importance than the sub-prefects. They have no salaries, but their relations with the inhabitants are direct. If these relations enabled him to do good, a mayor would be a happy man; they exist only to facilitate odious operations.’—‘All offices, however, to which is attached the management of funds, are important; for this reason the post of mayor, though according to law the service is purely gratuitous, is an object of competition.

‘The mayors are entrusted with the management of the monies of the communes arising from the rents of landed or other property belonging to them, and also the municipal toll paid upon all kinds of provisions at their entrance. They have the payment of the salaries of all the servants in the employ of the commune; they have to defray the expences of the public works, the maintenance of the buildings and establishments belonging to the commune, and to pay the dividends due to the creditors of the town, if there be any.’—

‘Almost all the towns of France lost their corporate funds during the revolution, either by dilapidations, or as a natural consequence of the calamities of the time. Most of them are now reduced to a state of wretched impoverishment.’—‘I know a town of considerable magnitude which was disabled from lighting its lamps in the winter of 1804, in consequence of having sent its mayor to Paris to be present at the coronation of Bonaparte. The money which ought to have purchased oil was expended in the shews of the capital, and very soon afterwards the duty levied on provisions was doubled.’

To those who are disposed to measure the increase of French power by the augmentation of territory, and who are under serious alarm from Bonaparte’s rage for incorporating one province after another, we would recommend the perusal of the subsequent paragraph:

‘In the departments of the Rhine, recently incorporated, the number of defects in the system is increased by a still greater than all the rest, the difference of language. The mayors in the villages and small towns understand in general not a word of the official language, and are therefore obliged to trust implicitly to the translation of their secretaries. Intelligent mayors themselves are paralysed by an obstacle, which can never be removed even though means be found to surmount it. The municipal administration in those countries is a real tower of Babel. Nothing is more impolitic than to adopt a foreign language for the purpose of introducing a new system. Against the French language, how much soever it may be liked by the higher classes, the minds of the vulgar entertain strong national prejudices. These are converted into antipathy, when it is made the vehicle of a system, which in itself contains nothing calculated to win the affections. It is difficult to conceive how such a system can subsist for a few days only; it is fear alone that sets the wheels in motion, and all the art of the prefects and sub-prefects consists in keeping them going. But let them do what they will, it is impossible that such a system should be durable, and not be overthrown by the first shock that it experiences. This shock will never be given it by the Germans of those countries; they are extremely docile and patient, but they never will be heartily French, and will easily receive the impulse which circumstances shall give them.’

The restraints on the press are carried in France to an extent which an Englishman must have great difficulty in believing. It has long been forbidden to the editors of newspapers to

to insert any article of political intelligence which had not first appeared in the *Moniteur*; and since M. Faber composed his work, the number of country papers has been curtailed, by a peremptory decree, to one for each department. It is a standing rule at the theatres to omit, in the representation even of old plays, all passages in which allusion is made to tyrants or tyranny; and we learn that this extraordinary and self-accusing system is carried so far, as to expunge all expressions of similar import in the editions of the classics which are used for the education of youth.

Of the jealousy which the French government still entertains on the subject of passports, an idea may be formed from this passage:

‘ In no country in the world are people confined so strictly to their homes as in France; the inhabitants of that country still live as though in the midst of revolution. No person dares go from one commune to another without a passport; otherwise he is exposed to the risk of being conducted back to the place whence he came, by the first gendarme that meets him, and of at least losing time in his justification, or failing in the errand on which he set out. Since the conscription, in particular, nothing can equal the strictness with which every passenger is examined and questioned. The gendarmes and officers of the police are instructed to be particularly vigilant in regard to all those who appear to be of the age required for the conscription. The conscript must not leave his commune, and the passport of every citizen must expressly specify if he has been a conscript, and in what year, if he was drawn by lot, if it was for the regular army or for the reserve, if he served by substitute or not; in a word, all the circumstances which mark the individuality of the bearer of the passport.

‘ Besides the business of passports, the public functionaries are charged with the duty of domiciliary visits. Whenever an officer belonging to one of the financial departments, as the customs or excise, or the controul of gold and silver plate, or any other branch, thinks fit to search a house, under the supposition of an infringement of the law, he requires the attendance of the mayor or his assistant. They proceed to the house, rummage from the cellars to the garrets, open the drawers and boxes, pry into every corner, unfold every article of linen, and spread out every garment. Visits of this kind are paid incessantly on the frontiers, and to the distance of several leagues, to the houses of the inhabitants, for the discovery of English commodities. These officers are likewise authorised to search any place in the interior where prohibited articles are suspected to be concealed, and they often take place in the heart of Paris itself. They are always preceded by terror, and accompanied by a military retinue.’

One of the most remarkable of the changes introduced by Bonaparte into the system of administration was the return from popular simplicity to the splendor which is connected

with a monarchical government. He well knew that the Revolution was detested by the nation, and he has always ascribed great influence to pomp and parade in the minds of Frenchmen. Public functionaries were now directed to make their appearance with swords, and in carriages; *Citizens* were transformed into *Messieurs*, and the *Maison Commune* was changed into the *Hôtel de Ville*. It would be difficult to say whether their public appearances or their official papers partake most of an artificial character. Almost the whole of their proceedings contradict their private conviction; they relinquish moral liberty, and speak only the language that is adapted to the ear of their master. The assumption of the consulship for life, and that of the imperial dignity, were both unexpected in the provinces; yet the addresses to which they gave rise were so worded, as to declare that the adoption of these measures had long been the object of general anxiety. M. Faber mentions one functionary who, the day before he obtained the news of the consulship for life, had betted a hundred crowns that Bonaparte would return to a private station; and who notwithstanding, on receiving notice of that event, transmitted an address which began in these words: "The day, the long and ardently wished-for day, has arrived, which ensures the happiness of France." After such examples as these, it is no exaggeration to say that France not only contains no individual who, in regard to politics, dares utter what he thinks, but that it contains a great many who are habitually employed in counterfeiting to the world sentiments which they know to be unfounded. The publication of falsehoods on the part of government, for the sake of popular effect, is carried to an extent which it is difficult to comprehend. The high-sounding donations of public money for the relief of local distresses, or in aid of public works, have in general no other existence than in the pages of the *Moniteur*. Many of our readers will recollect that, when Bonaparte passed through Lyons in 1800, he laid the foundation-stone of the celebrated square of Belle-Cour, which he engaged to raise with splendor from its ruins. The account of this ceremony was published with great pomp throughout the French empire, as well as the news of a promised donation of four hundred thousand livres to the proprietors of the former houses of the square. No rebuilding, however, took place; and when the truth became known in regard to the donation, it proved to be only a decree for raising that sum from among the Lyonnese themselves. When in 1805 Bonaparte was about to pass again through Lyons, consistency required that some step should be taken to redeem his pledge of rebuilding the square; an imperial *arrêt* for granting an

an additional sum of four hundred thousand livres therefore made its appearance immediately before his second visit, and procured for him the credit of liberality, for a season; but it was soon discovered that this sum, as well as the former, was a mere mockery, and must be raised among the Lyonnese themselves. In like manner almost all the grants for public works, which appear to the world in the light of treasury-aids, are merely designations of sums to be raised among the inhabitants of the neighbourhood; and the consequence is that, whatever may be pretended in a pompous exposé, most of these works remain untouched, or in ruin, like the square of Belle-cour.

The disgust, which the picture drawn by M. Faber is calculated to excite among us, naturally tends to add fuel to our martial flame, and to make us vow unremitted hostility against so deceitful an usurper. Yet when our ardour so far sub-sides as to permit a deliberate examination, we shall find ourselves disposed to acknowledge that those crimes which most offend us afford the surest prognostication of his downfall. They have deprived him altogether of attachment on the part of the French nation; the majority of whom now ardently pray that his schemes of conquest may be baffled, and the lesson of moderation be impressed on him by adversity. The men, therefore, who alone can be his instruments of conquest, are not only indifferent but adverse to his views; so that his power may be compared to an engine of which the various parts tend in a contrary direction to the impulse of the master-workman, and of which the revulsion will be sudden and complete whenever the hand that constrains it shall be withdrawn. It is needless to add that the aggrandizing schemes of so odious a character are much less to be dreaded than those of a popular champion, or of an hereditary sovereign. The execution of his projects is infinitely more difficult and hazardous, and the preservation of his acquisitions seems to approach to impossibility. Of the prevalence of hostility to Bonaparte at foreign courts, we may be assured by the recent coolness of Austria and the open dissatisfaction of Russia; while the resistance to his satellites in Holland, Westphalia, and Sweden, demonstrates that the people in these countries might soon be induced to follow the example of those in the peninsula. From all these circumstances, we may rest satisfied that Bonaparte is not destined to be the conqueror of Europe. Enough has recently occurred, both in the South and in the North, to caution him against wanton infractions on the rights of his neighbours, and to convince him that the way to preserve his crown on his head is to shun the hazards and the burdens of war. — When we have thus considered how completely he has exposed himself of late
years,

years, and how futile his attempts to recover lost influence are likely to prove, we may peruse without alarm the catalogue of his efforts to enlist all classes of his subjects in the promotion of his extravagant designs.

The State of Religion in France.—If we accompany M. Faber in an examination of the means adopted by Bonaparte to gain the people through the medium of the press, we shall find that those means embrace religious as well as civil publications, and that both have been equally unavailing. The *Moniteur*, swelled by a perpetual succession of speeches, addresses, and letters from public functionaries, which incessantly re-echo the same sounds,—the glory of his Imperial Majesty,—has for many years been confined to a pitiful circulation. The charges by archbishops and bishops, and the accounts of religious festivals in the dioceses, though published with ostentatious parade, have been equally unsuccessful in attracting attention. They compare Napoleon to all the distinguished characters in the Old Testament; to Joshua, to Cyrus, to the Lion of the tribe of Judah: but no body has patience to peruse these tedious and fulsome productions in the official Gazette; and the other papers, however servile in many respects, make it a rule to avoid the insertion of these eulogies. The public is perfectly aware that the dignitaries of the church are much more the instruments of the sovereign than the pastors of the subject. They are required to support his views on all occasions by their charges, their pastoral letters, and their festivals. Even the most anti-christian measures,—measures such as the conscription,—are advocated by this timid and servile tribe. “Can any law be more equitable than the military conscription?” said the Bishop of Séz; “that conscription which summonses all the citizens, without exception or distinction, to bear arms for a few years only, in the flower and vigour of youth, that they may afterward return to their peaceful homes.”—“It is to the succour of Heaven,” exclaimed the Bishop of Liege, “that our august monarch owes his wonderful success. Happy is the man who putteth his trust in God, and whose hope is the Lord.”—“Like another Judas Maccabæus,” said the Bishop of Metz, “Napoleon puts on his breast-plate as a giant; he braces himself with armour for the combat.”—“The prodigy, my brethren, which we admire,” cried the Archbishop of Bourges, “is not the work of man, it is the handy-work of the mighty God, who watches over the man of his right hand.”—The Bishop of Quimper introduces a voice from heaven addressing Bonaparte, and predicting all possible success; while another of these disinterested dignitaries exclaims, “He leaves the care of his destiny to the mighty hand which brought him out of the land
of

of Egypt." While these prelates are thus zealous in the praise of their ruler, the internal state of their dioceses, the proper object of pastoral care, exhibits a deplorable picture. The inferior clergy are often left in abject indigence; the churches in many parishes are in decay, while in others no churches whatever are left. The ministry, offering thus no prospect of competency or respectability, is no longer embraced as a profession by youth in sufficient numbers, and, the complaint of want of clergymen is loud and general. The Bishop of St. Brien complained that he had only fifty ecclesiastics in a diocese requiring seven hundred: the Archbishop of Rouen lately declared in a pastoral letter, that, in a few years, his diocese would be without priests, and the "house of the Lord without Levites;" and the Archbishop of Paris adopted this grievance as the subject of his charge, and conjured his flock "to supply the vine-yard of the Lord with labourers." All this is a consequence of the conduct of Bonaparte; who, having provided for the higher dignitaries, and done what was necessary to produce a pompous effect, is indifferent to the humbler consideration of the comfort of the people.

That religion in all its shapes may serve the purpose of an engine of state, the government retains the nomination of all protestant as well as catholic functionaries. Lay-directors, with the title of presidents, are appointed at the head of consistories, take the oath of allegiance to the ruler, and receive salaries from the state. They are expected in return to give to their communities the impulse required by government for the purpose of raising men and money; and they shew themselves not less subservient to the will of their master in their popular addresses than their catholic brethren. It is not surprising that Bonaparte should take pains to cultivate the attachment of the protestants, when we learn that the number subject to his sway is estimated (exclusive, we believe, of Holland) at five millions.

Public Instruction.—The next subject in which we trace the indefatigable interference of Bonaparte is the education of youth. In this, as in other respects, the Revolution began by destroying the old before it had provided new institutions; and the consequence was that the youth of France remained without instruction during a period of four years. It was not till the appointment of the Directory in the end of 1795, that public instruction became the object of legislation, and a decree was passed to establish two kinds of schools, *primary and central*. The former, however, were never brought into existence, from the want of pecuniary means; and the latter could be of little use without the benefit of elementary instruction. Recourse

was therefore had to private seminaries, many of which are well conducted, but expensive, and of course inaccessible to the bulk of the people. Bonaparte, soon after his elevation, brought forwards a new system of public instruction, in which particular stress was laid on a provision for primary schools : but, notwithstanding the most flattering assurances, these foundations continue in the same neglected state as before. Neither salaries nor houses are provided for teachers, and the result is that few schools of the first or the second rank exist, on the plan professed by government. Its patronage is confined to the Lyceums, or third class of seminaries, and is directed not to the purpose of instruction, but to that of procuring the attachment of a number of affluent families. Each pupil admitted into a Lyceum is distinguished by name in a decree, and not fewer than 6400 scholars are maintained by the state.

Even here, however, it is curious to observe the efforts of Bonaparte to escape from the performance of his pecuniary obligations, and to throw the expence of these institutions on the particular quarters of the country in which they are situated. Having passed a decree commanding the mayors and municipal councils to supply the wants of young students on their arrival, this power has been so far abused that troops of boys, collected in various departments, have been sent to be newly clothed and equipped at the expence of any town that was able to afford it. We select a passage from M. Faber, which conveys an idea of the plan of instruction at the Lyceums, and of the stress laid on those habits of military subordination which are always uppermost in Bonaparte's mind :

‘ Latin and Mathematics are the main objects of the Lyceums. For each of the two branches of instruction there are six classes, under the superintendence of three professors, each of whom gives instruction in arithmetic as well as Latin. In the fourth class the Latin professor teaches geography ; in the third the elements of chronology and ancient history ; in the second those of mythology ; in the first history, and the geography and history of France. No pupil is admitted into the mathematical class, till he has passed the fifth Latin form. Two committees, one for Latin, the other for the Mathematics, have directed the printing of such class-books as they consider to be adapted to the system. There are as many volumes as classes, arranged in such a manner, that each volume, for Latin, as well as for the Mathematics, comprehends what a professor is to go through with one class. No professor must, upon any pretext whatever, presume to teach from any other books. Besides a writing, drawing, and dancing master, there is a military instructor, whose business it is to teach all the pupils above twelve years old their exercise : those who have attained that age he instructs in the use of

arms, and in military manoeuvres; and he attends all their lessons to command the marches of the pupils in the various movements of the day. The scholars are divided into companies; for their meals, private study, school-hours, recreations, prayers, church and bed-time, the signal is given by beat of drum. They rise at half-past five, and on Sundays and holidays at six: prayers, studies, and all their exercises, take place at one and the same time, and in common. The pupils are not allowed to go out of the Lyceum but by permission of the director, who sends some person with them; none of them must sleep out of the seminary. They must not have any correspondence except with their parents, or persons authorized by their parents in their stead. All letters which they write and receive pass through the hands of the censor. The access to the Lyceums is prohibited to all persons of the other sex: the mothers, sisters, and female relatives of the pupils are not allowed to enter without the permission of the director. The boys must not pull off their coats in their hours of recreation without leave from the censor. Each Lyceum may have a library of fifteen hundred volumes; all these libraries must be composed of the same works, and no book must be placed in it unless by the authority of the minister of the interior.'—

'The highest degree of public instruction, corresponding with the universities of other countries, resides in the special schools. If this department is not completely organized, it exhibits at least some brilliant points, and of more or less immediate utility to the state. The six schools of medicine, and the ten schools of law, are not all yet in vigour; but the special military school at Fontainebleau is remarkable for its particular organization, designed to prepare young men, in two years, for the military life and profession. The Polytechnic school has produced men of eminence in the mathematical sciences; the school of engineering and artillery at Mentz, and that of bridges and highways, have supplied the different branches of the public service and the arts with excellent subjects. The college of France and the Museum of Natural History in the Botanical Garden at Paris have both maintained their character and the glory of the sciences: both have survived the Revolution: the former remained untouched; the latter has received improvements and accessions. All these are brilliant institutions; they are more or less useful also; but they cannot make amends for the deficiency of elementary instruction complained of by the French. In most of the country-communes, there is not a man who can read and write well enough to keep the registers of the civil proceedings that fall under the cognizance of the mayor. Why, then, should we be astonished, if along with inventions and discoveries which reflect honour on the human mind, the French papers record crimes that make nature shudder?—girls poisoning their fathers, mothers murdering their children, and the blind deliberately contriving the death of the benefactors who supported them.'

Administration of Justice.—Since the formidable addition made seven years ago to our stamp-duties, we have difficulty in conceiving that any country could be so heavily burdened as ourselves

ourselves in regard to law-proceedings : but the present author stoutly maintains that France is not behind us in this respect. All acts, judicial or extra-judicial, are liable to the duty of registration, the different rates of which are fixed in a printed table :—but, while M. Faber complains bitterly of the expence of justice, he gives a very favourable testimony to the personal character of the judges. In questions between individuals and the government, indeed, the decisions are such as we may expect under the frown of a despot, and from judges who are removeable at his pleasure : but these cases are confined to a particular class of judges, the prefectural counsellors ; and in private suits the government exercises no kind of interference. The latter form by far the largest proportion of cases, and in these the decisions of the French judges are in general unimpeachable. They are paid, as in England, out of the public treasury : but an English reader, unaccustomed to attend to the different value of money in the two countries, will learn with surprize that the annual salaries of the inferior judges are so low as from 100*l.* to 140*l.* sterling ; those of a higher rank, namely, the judges of criminal tribunals, about 200*l.* ; and the highest of all, the judges of the Court of Cassation, receive only 450*l.* This sum is the same as the salary of a member of the legislative body.—To be a Justice of the peace is in France an employment by itself, and is exercised by about 3500 individuals in all : but their pay is by much too scanty, varying from 40*l.* to 80*l.* sterling, according to the population of the commune in which the Justice resides.—The French have made an experiment of the trial by jury, and have renounced it. It was alleged that the requisite information, and habit of thought, were not to be obtained by that indiscriminate election which constitutes the essence of a jury ; though, on the other hand, it has been remarked that, however ignorant might be the majority of a French jury, their decisions were generally right ; the intelligence of some of their number serving as a guide to the rest. The principal charge against jury-trial in France was that it leaned too far to the side of mercy, and too often absolved the guilty ; a defect arising in some degree out of its nature, but much more out of the imperfect state of the criminal law. Like all other dependencies of Bonaparte's government, the judiciary are forced to labour in the odious work of conscription. They are called to adjudge the heavy fines imposed on the parents of absconded conscripts, in order that the sanction of judicial form may be given to an act of merciless tyranny, and that the head of government may not be without colleagues in this the most obnoxious of his measures. The judges of the superior tribunals are likewise compelled to act a part

part in the theatrical representations of the imperial dignity, and to be present at masses, processions, and public dinners. They are not exempted, moreover, from the task of drawing up addresses to the sovereign; addresses dictated by the minister of justice, and degraded by a portion of that adulation which pervades the fulsome tributes of the other classes.

[*To be continued.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1811.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 13. *An Examination of Sir John Sinclair's Observations on the Report of the Bullion Committee, and on the general Nature of Coin or Money, and the Advantages of Paper Circulation.* By P. R. Hoare, Esq. 8vo. pp. 111. 4s. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

Mr. Hoare is sufficiently aware of the uninviting nature of political economy, as a study, to suppose that a knowledge of it cannot be very generally diffused: but he seems by no means to have been prepared for that denial of its first principles, of which the discussions on the Bullion-question have afforded several examples. Entering, without much preamble, on a scrutiny of the Right Hon. Baronet's opinions, Mr. Hoare begins by taking up the point so frequently urged against the Committee, viz. that their Report is contrary to the evidence; and he mentions that the contradiction regards not the testimony but the speculative opinions of the witnesses examined. He combats, at some length, Sir John's assertion that the fall of exchange is unconnected with the state of our paper-currency, and enters minutely into the evidence on that head, to shew how little support it affords to the Baronet's conclusion. He next deems it incumbent on him to expose some of those political axioms which Sir J. S. has laid down with so much formality, as comprehending the essence of the principles of money.—In regard to his animadversions on Sir John's opinions, which occupy the chief part of the pamphlet, we have only to regret that so much labour should have been bestowed on so inconsiderable an object; since it would be paying a bad compliment indeed to the understanding of the public, to suppose that their judgment could be much divided in regard to the accuracy of the Baronet's speculations. Mr. Hoare appears to the most advantage in conveying to his readers his own sentiments; as (p. 80.) when he shews that the rate of interest depends not on the numerical amount of the circulating medium, but on the profit of capital; and (p. 107.) when he exhorts us to estimate our national resources, not by pecuniary calculation, but by solid and intrinsic improvements in our agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. His chief error consists in the adoption of the current notion that it is easy to issue paper to excess, and that it has been the great instrument

instrument (greater even than war and taxes) in enhancing the price of provisions.—As to style, we cannot pass without censure his repeated use of the word species (110, 111.) for specie, and must advise him to study compression both of matter and of diction, in any future publication.

Art. 14. *A Replication to all the Theorists and abstract Reasoners on Bullion, Coins, Exchanges, and Commerce*; in a Letter addressed to the Legislature of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. pp. 90. 4s. 6d. Burrup.

Were we to judge from the price of this pamphlet, we should be obliged to pronounce that money is greatly depreciated, and it happens unluckily that we find little in it to compensate for its enormous cost. It is, in truth, one of the most excentric productions to which the fertile topic of bullion has given rise; being written by a person who is not unacquainted indeed with the state of the mercantile world, but who is apt to fall into strange extravagances of thought and language. He has given his publication the form of an address to the Legislature of the United Kingdom; and after having expatiated on the transient character of military, naval, and commercial greatness, he arrives at the conclusion that agriculture is the most stable foundation of political power. Following up this idea to practical execution, he recommends an extinction of all jealousies between merchants and land-owners, and the formation of a great *agricultural association*, for the purpose of cultivating a part of the twenty millions of acres of land which still remain in a rude state in the British dominions. He calculates (p. 69.) that we import, annually, of corn nearly two millions of quarters, of flax and hemp sixty-five thousand tons, and of timber five hundred thousand loads. Though we can by no means join him in approving of bounties on our own produce, or of discouragements on the importation of foreign articles, we are satisfied that it is the fault of our ignorance alone that the growth of our timber, our flax, and our corn, has not received a greater extension. Ireland is in respect to timber a neglected region; the growth of flax she has by no means carried to the point of which she is capable; and in regard to corn, we have only to visit Northumberland and the northern bank of the Tweed, to be satisfied that ample scope remains for improvement both in England and the sister-island. Those who are fond of recommending bounties on home-produce forget that, on such bulky articles as we have mentioned, the saving in the way of transport forms of itself no inconsiderable premium to the home-growers. The rumoured profits of capital in foreign regions, in India, and the western hemisphere, have withdrawn during the last century a considerable portion of that stock which would otherwise have been appropriated to the improvement of the mother-country. Our fisheries, in particular, appear to have suffered from this cause, and to have received only a small part of that increase of which they are susceptible. Recent experience, however, has had a powerful tendency to demonstrate the inadequacy of the profits of distant trade; and to convince our capitalists that, small as the gains of a home-concern appear, its security renders it ultimately the most advantageous.

In recommending these considerations to the attention of our readers, we can promise them no additional information from the pamphlet under review, which is in truth a very *mediocre* performance.

Art. 15. *Observations on the present State of the Currency of England.* By the Earl of Rosse. 8vo. pp. 95. 3s. 6d. Stockdale, junior. 1811.

It may be necessary to inform the reader that the noble author of this pamphlet has long been known to them, in the political world, as Sir Laurence Parsons, and that he became Earl of Rosse in the year 1806. He begins his present inquiry by an exposition of some of the first principles of the doctrine of money; and one of his favourite tenets, which he maintains both in the beginning and at the end of the tract, is, that for the money intended for home-circulation, intrinsic value is not a necessary characteristic, though in transactions with foreigners he acknowledges that it is indispensable. He boldly asserts that the idea that bank-notes should be always convertible into coin is the 'offspring of barbarous times;' yet, notwithstanding this resolute step towards innovation, he is not, in other respects, so far relieved from antient trammels as to approve of permitting the free exportation of coin. He comes forwards on many points as the opponent of the Bullion-Committee, but in none more decidedly than in regard to their grand rule of estimating the depreciation of our paper by the rate of exchange and the price of bullion. The present high price of gold is not, he contends, without example; it is a consequence, he alleges, (p. 30.) of the burdens and want of confidence which result from protracted war, and existed to a certain degree both in the American war and in that of 1756. He therefore maintains that it is not the bank-note that has fallen in price, but gold that has risen. Our readers, on comparing his Lordship's views with those which we formerly submitted to them, will perceive that they differ in several respects. We have no doubt that the tendency of war to make money scarce is considerable: but we are not equally clear with regard to its effects in raising one kind of money above another; gold, for instance, above silver, or above bank-notes payable in specie. Relatively to the continent, we are of opinion that our notes are very considerably depreciated; while in regard to home-circulation, the depreciation appears to us much less serious.

The part of Lord Rosse's pamphlet, with which we are most disposed to agree, is the statement (p. 46.) of the ruinous effects that could not fail to follow any great reduction of the Bank-issues. Whether we look to the condition of the metropolis or to that of the country, we see enough to warn us against a hasty recourse to such a measure, and to urge us to seek a cure for the evil in the regulation rather of our trade than of our money-system. While in this respect, however, shades of difference prevail between our opinion and the recommendation of the Bullion-Committee, we are very far from joining Lord Rosse in pronouncing the members of that committee (p. 56.) to be a set of theorists; and we cannot agree with him (p. 70.) that they should be censured for applying the epithet of depreciation to the state of our paper-currency. Still less can we coincide in his repre-

sentation of the exultation of the French Ruler at the contents of the Bullion-Report; not that we doubt that his decrees against trade have received great aggravation in consequence of the hopes inspired by the bankruptcies among our merchants, and the fall of our exchange: but we conceive that the Bullion-Report was too guarded and too temperate a statement of the evil, to be justly chargeable with producing a triumph in the mind of the Gallic Ruler, or with originating the measures which have ensued. The mischief lay not in the Report, but in the circumstances which rendered the Report necessary.

Lord Rosse is a spirited writer, and a keen disputant: but we cannot compliment him so highly when he quits the ground of debate, and proceeds to lay down the fruits of his meditation in the shape of principles. The passage, in which he has made the chief attempt of this kind, (p. 78.) does not appear to us of sufficient importance to be submitted to our readers. Its object is to satisfy us that no material inconvenience is likely to result from the *temporary* inconvertibility of our paper-currency; a proposition which we feel the less disposed to contest, because his Lordship very properly follows it up (p. 85.) with an admission that, as soon as commerce resumes her natural course, our wisest plan will be to return to cash-payments.

Art. 16. *The Law and Principle of Money considered*; in a Letter to W. Huskisson, Esq. M.P. By John Raithby, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 116. 4s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

It is stated in the preface that the aim of this publication is, in the first place, to ascertain the principle of money; next, to consider the law on the subject; and, lastly, to propose certain measures for the establishment of a paper-money, in the room of the precious metals. Mr. Raithby begins by censuring Mr. Huskisson for not saying explicitly what money is, and, by way of making up for the deficiency, proposes the following definition:

‘Money is gold or silver, or paper, or any other subject, which, taking to itself, or having assigned to it, a peculiar character, receives the stamp or authority of the state, and is received by common obedience to that authority as descriptive of a certain denominative value, which is the common measure and common representative of the value of commodity.’

On this definition, Mr. Raithby erects the following syllogism:

‘All commodity possesses intrinsic value.

Nothing but commodity can possess intrinsic value.

But money is not commodity.

Money, therefore, cannot possess intrinsic value.’

On the third member of the syllogism, the allegation that ‘money is not a commodity,’ the whole fabric of Mr. Raithby’s subsequent reasoning is founded. In support of this favourite proposition, he lays down successively, ‘what is meant by commodity, how money is distinguished from commodity, and lastly what is meant by intrinsic value.’ It is, however, not a little remarkable that the publication, from which Mr. Raithby has avowedly taken his definition of money,

contains a very long argument to shew that all purchasers, in giving money, give a commodity: yet this argument he has either omitted to notice or declined to combat, and has preferred to exercise his ingenuity in the construction of a system of his own. Instead of entering into an elaborate refutation of his reasoning, it may suffice for us to observe that bullion is at all events a commodity, and that the convertibility of coin into bullion must necessarily subject metallic currency to the laws which regulate the price of commodities in general. Paper-money is indirectly subjected to the same rules; for no method has yet been discovered of keeping paper on a par with specie, except a liability to cash-payments. Mr. Raithby, however, thinks differently, and conceives that the order of government is the sole requisite for maintaining the value of a paper-currency. Under this impression, his plan is to make paper our sole medium of circulation, and completely to exclude the precious metals. He takes greatly the start of Lord Rosse; who, in arguing that paper was adequate to all the purposes of internal traffic, admitted that a currency possessing intrinsic value was necessary for our foreign intercourse.

Of the rapidity with which Mr. Raithby overleaps the most serious obstacles, his arguments (p. 114.) on the manner of carrying on foreign commerce, under his new system, afford an appropriate example; and of the bold originality of his phraseology, we may form a notion from his insisting that the constitution is part of the national *wealth*. We have seldom met with an author possessed of a more entire confidence in the accuracy of his own views, or more thoroughly satisfied of the errors of those who have the misfortune to differ from him: yet the diffuseness of his style, and the crude character of his reasoning, sufficiently shew that he is a juvenile writer on subjects of political economy. To give an analysis of his pamphlet would greatly exceed our boundaries; and we shall bring our strictures to a close by observing that we shall be disposed to entertain favourable hopes of ability, such as is displayed in the present publication, when we find it directed by reflection, and applied less to the structure of new systems than to the investigation of those which already exist.

Art. 17. *Remarks on the new Doctrine concerning the supposed Depreciation of our Currency.* By Mr. Boase. 8vo. pp. 150. 4s. Nicol and Son. 1811.

Mr. Boase is of opinion, with several other writers, that the bullion-question has been unnecessarily encumbered with metaphysical disquisitions; and he proposes to himself the task of pointing out the most important facts of the case, in the familiar language of business. The subject, he says, has long engaged his attention; and he watched during fourteen years the progress and the effects of paper-currency, with a care proportioned to the apprehensions which he at first entertained from the Bank-suspensions, but which have now given way to a conviction that a 'sound and undepreciated paper-currency' is of incalculable benefit to the country. He resides, we are informed, at a very great distance from London, and disclaims being indebted for his ideas to any of the recent publications on the subject.

The first part of his pamphlet combats, at considerable length, the opinions of Mr. Huskisson. The points in which we chiefly agree with Mr. Boase regard the false estimate, so generally formed by men out of business, of the ease with which bank-notes may be obtained; and the assertion too confidently urged by the Bullion-Committee, that there was no real scarcity of bullion. The evidence on the latter point was intended to apply to the demand for home-consumption only, which is a very small part of the whole demand. We likewise concur with Mr. Boase that war and taxes have been much more instrumental in producing the rise of provisions, than the use of paper-money: but we differ from him in ascribing to them any particular tendency to raise the proportional value of gold.

In his summary of the mercantile causes which have contributed to overthrow our exchanges, we trace nothing more than a recapitulation of the arguments already brought forwards by the witnesses before the Committee: the other causes, such as the loss of the American continental trade, which escaped them, seem also to have eluded the penetration of Mr. Boase; whose labours, it must be admitted, are more calculated to convey the idea of a temperate and well-meaning than of an original writer. After a comparison between the prices of articles in 1789 and in the present time, and a statement that the expence of house-keeping is now double, he infers from the circumstance of our currency not being doubled, that, instead of an excess, there has been a deficiency of bank-notes; and he goes the length of ascribing to this cause the existence of the mass of accommodation-bills which recent bankruptcies have brought to light. A closer examination of the subject would have shewn Mr. Boase that the two things depend on very different causes, and that the extent of fictitious bills is not to be checked by increased issues of notes. Towards the end of the work, (p. 103.) he enlarges on the general prosperity of the country, and presents (p. 93.) a very clear recapitulation of the different points which he has laboured to establish. These consist of a string of negatives to the tenets of the Bullion-Committee, and relate to ground already so often trodden, that we have no desire to invite our readers to make a new journey over it.

Art. 18. *Defence of Abstract Currencies*; in Reply to the Bullion-Report and Mr. Huskisson. By Gloucester Wilson, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 200. 4s. 6d. Murray. 1811.

Had Mr. Boase been able to peruse this tract before he wrote his own, he would not have limited his complaint of metaphysical disquisition to the writers on the side of the Bullion-Committee. Mr. Wilson is by no means a practical man, and gives us fair warning of his determination to philosophize, by lamenting in his introduction that the writers on the side of the Bank have confined themselves so much to matters of practical detail. In his eagerness for general reasoning, on the other hand, he appears to have lost sight of that care and labour which are indispensably necessary to produce conciseness and perspicuity in composition, and to make a philosophical work acceptable to the public. If we had reason to complain of *cannui* in travelling through Mr. Raithby's undigested pages, (see Art. 16.) the cause of

grievance is still stronger in the present case. Mr. Wilson's system, as explained by himself, (p. 44.) is,

'That any real approach to full equivalence in the precious metals is altogether a prejudiced idea: that the metals pass in currency only as tokens of credit in the same manner as paper does; and, if I am right in this, gold is no more essential to the guinea, than the brass or ivory of the ruler is to its inches. Gold is only a higher personification of an equal *but abstract credit*, and if it does not represent such a credit, has no real meaning in *circulation*, no just place there. — My system distinctly is that such an abstract credit is itself the only standard of value, the only real object to be expressed, and that all our mediums of currency do but equally endeavour to embody this, so far as to fix it more sensibly in our several conceptions. That paper, as the more abstract expression, is to those who recognize it as sufficiently tangible, more accurately preservable to its true point or object than gold is likely to be or any other thing.'

Again, p. 89.

'If money was strictly held to imply the definite article it names, our money-bargains would not have advanced us any thing in social life beyond the savage state of barter. Money is only so far an advance in civilization as it personifies an abstract idea, rather than expresses any definitely sensible ones, as it implies definitively nothing beyond quantity of value, abstracted from all specification of quality or kind. Mediums of currency are thus all properly, in as far as they have real import, but personifications of abstract value. — What is called the equivalency of some of them, whether imaginary or even truly real, is, as far as it interferes with their abstract character as measures, a mere remaining leaven of savage barter. Their greater or less grossness of personification only shews the skill to which we have arrived in laying our vessel near the wind.'

After such specimens of Mr. Wilson's mode of reasoning, our readers will probably be disposed to excuse us from the task of entering into it at length. One of his favourite objects is to shew that metallic currency is liable to great fluctuations; and that, in a mixed circulating medium, paper, itself unvarying, supplies a measure by which we ascertain the changes in the value of gold and silver.

'Sensible variations (says Mr. Wilson, p. 135.) will in time occur even in gold itself, as measured upon any other accurate scale, such as that of paper; and these will seem variations between paper and gold, however the Legislature may be unwilling to recognize the circumstance, and may have endeavoured to bind the two indissolubly together. When such variations have occurred, it is idle, on its part, to rail at paper which has only accurately exposed them. The Legislature may rest assured that on such subjects, its own edicts are alone to blame, if they are ever permanently disobeyed.'

Such are the visionary notions on which a man of education permits himself to descant, throughout a treatise of two hundred pages. He writes without arrangement or division of his subject, and, like many others on the same side of the question, makes Mr. Huskisson's pamphlet the great object of attack. When the public are apprized that he uses such expressions as (Introduction, p. 26.) 'gold might

have regretted,' (Ibid. p. 27.) 'bank-notes display agility,' and (Ibid. p. 28.) 'notes disappoint bullion,' they will be disposed to pronounce that his style is not inferior in eccentricity to his opinions.

*
AFFAIRS OF AMERICA.

Art. 19. *An Inquiry into the past and present Relations of France and the United States of America.* 8vo, pp. 87. 3s. Hatchard. 1811.

The inquiry, which is here given in a separate form, is extracted from the first volume of "the American Review," which issued from the press at Philadelphia on the first day of the present year, and is to be continued quarterly. It bears evident marks of coming from the pen of Mr. Walsh, whose keen attacks on Bonaparte's government we have already noticed at considerable length*. In the present crisis, when the occurrence of an unfortunate conflict between two ships of war appears to have brought our contentions with America to a decisive point, it is of no small consequence for us to possess, among the natives of that country, so willing and able an advocate as Mr. Walsh. Much as we are disposed to censure the conduct of our Ministers towards the United States since 1807, and serious as is their responsibility, the apprehension of a rupture with that country, at the time when of all others we should suffer most by it, suggests to us so many painful considerations as to extinguish the inclination of arguing on the past, and to point our whole anxiety to the means of preventing additional evil. Without inquiring, therefore, whether Mr. Walsh be correct or not in his favourable opinion of our Ministers, we rejoice that the influence of French intrigue should be resisted by the diffusion of such opinions as those which he promulgates; and that, in consequence of the collision of opposite sentiments, time should be gained for a more full and deliberate discussion.

Mr. Walsh is of opinion that, however violent Bonaparte's passions may be, his acts, even the most impetuous, proceed on political calculation. His objects in the Berlin decree seem to have been two-fold; viz. to shift the odium of extinguishing continental trade from himself to us, and to involve us in a war with America. 'He foresaw,' says Mr. W, 'that the United States, forgetful of the malignity of the chief juggler, would be ready to wreak all their vengeance on his short-sighted foe, who, in blind subserviency to his schemes, crushed them with the weight of her power.' It is difficult, however, to reconcile other parts of Bonaparte's conduct with so deliberate a project. — We are told that it is the practice of the French squadrons to burn the American merchantmen which they happen to meet at sea, for the sake, as is said, of preventing the transmission of information, but without allowing any indemnity whatever to the unfortunate owners:—even the property saved from ships thus burned has been known to be placed under the imperial council of

* See Monthly Review, Vol. lxi, N. S. p. 299.

prises, to be judged as a case of *ordinary capture* :—but the climax of American wrongs was reserved for the Rambouillet decree, which denounced at once the seizure and confiscation of the whole of their property within reach of Bonaparte. Mr. Walsh examines at some length the correspondence between M. Champagny and General Armstrong in 1808, and shews that much more spirit was displayed on the part of the American ambassador than on that of his government, which Mr. Walsh accuses without reserve of pusillanimity. ‘Submission to affront,’ he adds, ‘dastardizes more and more the spirit of the sufferer, and emboldens and sharpens the unpunished insolence of aggression. To overlook an insult is to provoke an injury. If the history of mankind clearly establishes any one point it is this,—that honour is to a nation what the locks of Samson were to him, and the experience of the last eighteen years proves incontrovertibly, that whatever power yields to the blandishments or reclines on the lap of French sorcery, will encounter the fall of the credulous Israelite.’

The French government appear to have felt very sore at the arrangement which was concluded by Mr. Erskine in 1809, and which they feared would form an irrevocable reconciliation between us and the Americans. It was then that all their grievances were promulgated, in a demi-official composition under the signature of Champagny, addressed to an anonymous person, and published in the Paris gazettes. This angry effusion possessed enough of authority to awaken apprehension, yet not so much as to prevent disavowal in the event of the continuance of a pacific policy ;—and here we have a specimen of the ordinary artifice of such governments as that of Bonaparte ; an artifice which is extolled by many as exquisitely profound, but which will certainly have little weight with any people who can form a just estimate of their rights and their power. The most remarkable part of Champagny’s letter is his statement of the great advantage which this country derives from the American trade with the continent of Europe. “All maritime commerce,” he says, “whether colonial or other, admitted or tolerated on the Continent, will always turn to the advantage of the British ; and the Americans, if licensed to trade, would become the most powerful auxiliaries of this dreaded commercial system.” How much juster are these views, than those by which our rulers were unfortunately actuated when they determined on their Orders in Council !

Of Bonaparte’s manner of treating his Council, the following anecdote, communicated by General Armstrong, will convey an idea. “In a Council of Administration held a few days past, when it was proposed to modify the operation of the decrees of November 1806, and December 1807, (though the proposition was supported by the whole weight of the Council,) the Emperor became highly indignant, and declared that these decrees should suffer no change, and that the Americans should be compelled to take the positive character of either allies or enemies.” (p. 51.) It was soon after this emphatic declaration that he laid violent hands on all American property within his reach : but, on discovering that the body of the American na-

* See General Armstrong’s note of 10th July, 1808.

tion was not to be coerced into a war with England, he suddenly changed his tone, and bent all his efforts to the attainment of the same object by flattery and intrigue.—In the sales of American property, effected by his order, the duties were so high as to amount to two hundred per cent. on the proceeds. — Mr. Walsh does not fail to expatiate (p. 82.) on Bonaparte's rooted antipathy to the American people. It is to their cupidity that he ascribes the failure of his attempts on St. Domingo; and the freedom of their government is a constant reproach to his military despotism.

Our limits have permitted us to give only a brief outline of the variety of matter which is introduced into this pamphlet. In regard to its composition, we must make the same animadversion on this as on Mr. Walsh's former publication. It contains by far too large a portion of diffuse and declamatory language; which obliges us, while we admire the spirit of the writer, to suspect the prevalence of exaggeration, not only in his comments, but in his representation of facts. A fondness for quotation is likewise carried by him to excess, and repetition is the natural consequence of the haste and warmth with which he writes. Making the necessary allowance for these deductions from its merit, the pamphlet is fully intitled to the character of an animated and even an eloquent production.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *The Right of the People to frequent and new Parliaments.*
8vo. pp. 54. 2s. 6d. Piercy. 1811.

The discussion pursued in this pamphlet is begun by tracing the legislative power of the people to the earliest ages in our history. Before the union of the seven Saxon kingdoms in one, says the writer, the people appear to have voted in bodies; and when the extended dominion of Egbert rendered the personal attendance of his subjects impracticable, the expedient of representation was then first adopted. The Saxon Wittenagemote, the source of our Parliaments, was regularly held at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide; and it was not till the civil wars in the reigns of Stephen and John that the regular meetings of Parliament were interrupted, and that the habit of convening and dissolving that assembly, which is now an undisputed branch of the prerogative, was first exercised by the crown. Our ancestors, however, becoming soon aware of the necessity of frequent meetings of Parliament, obtained under our third Edward an Act that "Parliament should be holden every year once, and oftener if need be." The attempts of the Stuarts to govern without a parliament became, more than any others of their usurpations, the cause of their overthrow; and a few years only had elapsed after their expulsion, when provision was made, by the Triennial Bill, that the same parliament should not be continued for more than three years. From 1694 to 1716, this law was the law of the land, and a more glorious era is not to be found in the history of England. The Septennial Bill, enacted in the latter year, has always been considered as a most unconstitutional exercise of parliamentary authority, and was unfortunately supported, in the minds of the people, by the impression produced by the rebellion in Scotland during the preceding year.

To

To save appearances, this bill originated in the House of Lords, where it was most ably combated by the Earl of Nottingham. In the House of Commons, it encountered great opposition from Mr. Shippen and Sir Robert (afterward Lord Chief Justice) Raymond, who declared that, "would the King establish his throne in the hearts of his subjects, the most sure and effectual way would be by frequent appeals to the people. A standing parliament and a standing army are convertible and fit instruments to support each other's power." Zeal and ability, however, were unavailing, and the Septennial Bill passed into a law. Various efforts have since been made to repeal this disgraceful act; the first in 1734, when the eloquence of Sir William Wyndham was conspicuous, the second in 1742, and the third in 1745, when very vigorous efforts to that effect were made by Mr. Carew and Mr. Sydenham. The former argued that "the interests of the prince and people cannot really and truly differ; he can be great only in their greatness, and prosperous in their prosperity." The latter observed, "it is to the fatal introduction of long parliaments, that we are to ascribe the extension of ministerial corruption, and the deterioration of public morals. Nothing can so effectually remove this as the restoration of *annual* parliaments. They will demolish the market of corruption; for ministers will not corrupt where it can be of no avail; and, though contests may occasionally take place, the magnitude of the object will not be such as to occasion either venality or violence."

The present writer concludes by imploring his readers to peruse with attention the recorded opinions of our great patriots and statesmen, who were the strenuous advocates for short Parliaments; to consider that the latest of these speeches have been delivered more than sixty years; and to reflect, if the state of the representation was such as it was described by them so long ago, what it must necessarily be *now*, when corruption is so much more lavish of her rewards, and when the temptations to venality are so much more numerous. He gives no higher name to his tract than that of a compilation: but we are disposed to characterize it as a clear and convincing production, founded indeed on the opinion of others, but expressed in a style which demonstrates a capacity for original thought.—A short Appendix contains a copy of the Triennial and the Septennial Acts.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *Original Sonnets, and other Poems*. By Mary F. Johnson. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Regarding the precincts of Parnassus as already full-stocked, this lady asks only for a humble walk at the foot of the mountain: but though this situation may satisfy her modesty, it will not be an adequate recompence of her merit. "The Sisters of the sacred well," we imagine, will invite her to ascend the mountain, if not to the summit, at least to an elevated and enviable station. To speak in plain terms, without poetic fiction, we think that Mrs. M. F. Johnson, (who dates from Wroxall Farm, Isle of Wight,) is not to be blended with the croud of rhiming ladies who offer themselves to our notice on every

every occasion. Her Muse is creative ; she observes and paints nature ; she reflects and feels. We may apply to her one of her own lines,

‘ And life’s best pleasure lay in cultur’d thought.’

In the management of the Sonnet she has shown her skill, and on a great variety of subjects has displayed a range of intellect. We were prepossessed by her preface, and our readers will be induced to form anticipations in her favour by her address

‘ TO THE PUBLIC.

‘ Though no puff’d memoir or vignette reveal
That I am old or young, or fair or brown,
With smiles, dread Public, these weak efforts crown,
And let me on your tol’rant notice steal,
With candour weigh this diffident appeal,
To yours the sole tribunal of renown :
Though, if but pity rise to check your frown,
Spare not—but justice, void of vengeance, deal.
Yet, Public, if its native strain amuse,
Can you a guileless confidence abuse,
And crush the bird which shelters in your breast ?
The woodland warbler, timid and unknown
For brilliant plumage or mellifluent tone,
May rise to fame with your protection blest.’

This ‘ Woodland Warbler’ has here presented to the public a volume of Sonnets, with other poems, which is ‘ the spontaneous effusion of solitude and leisure.’ The former are arranged under the heads of Sonnets, Personifications, and Regular Sonnets ; but though a distinction ought to be made between irregular and regular sonnets, we do not perceive the necessity nor even the propriety of assigning a distinct division to Personifications, since apostrophe, more or less, pervades the whole. Her Personifications are indeed well managed ; and not only in the Ode to a Blush, which she calls the ‘ officious tell-tale of emotion,’ but in other instances, are her epithets appropriate and well chosen. In the Sonnet on the *Willing Muse*, we were sorry to detect an indifferent line, marked also by faulty grammar ; (p. 137.)

‘ She comes—not on her Wealth and Power attends.’

We copy two or three of these Sonnets, as specimens of the character, complexion, and sentimental turn, of the Muse of Wroxall Farm :

‘ TO-MORROW,

‘ Now high reflected radiance richly warms
The blue horizon with vermilion streaks,
And of To-morrow’s renovated charms,
Propitiously the ev’ning glory speaks.
But why, oh Hope ! will thy confiding heart
To-morrow’s pledge so credulously trust ?

Deceitful

Deceitful as to-day will she depart,
 Like her to ev'ry previous vaunt unjust.
 Yet Hope's enchantment robes the distant scene,
 Fair seems To-morrow in perspective view,
 False will she be, as former days have been,
 But though the dream deceive, its bliss is true ;
 And still shall expectation fondly say,
 To-morrow will be better than to-day.'

In the department of Personification, the first Sonnet is intitled

' POESY.

' When LOVE releas'd thy erst unfetter'd tongue,
 Thou mover of the passions ! thy sweet lyre
 The tender god to soft expression strung,
 And tun'd to Feeling's voice the vocal wire,
 Still to those tones the faithful string responds,
 And speaks not to the heart but in that key ;
 For Nature, by indissoluble bonds,
 United Feeling and true Poesy.
 Where Feeling is not, by no studied lore
 An unblest bard awakes a touching strain :
 His heavy measures drag, or feebly soar ;
 The breast they move not, though they reach the brain.
 Exalted, genuine Poesy ! thy chart
 Shows from the head the passage to the heart.'—

' SLEEP.

' Fetter my senses with thy chain of lead,
 Likeness of Death ! of life the better part.
 Remove the weight that presses down my heart,
 And quell the terrors that perturb my head,
 Let lightsome images with feathery tread,
 In shapes and scenes best lov'd, around me start ;
 And that no gloom th'illusive joy may thwart,
 Dispel the phantoms of portentous Dread.
 Those long-past days, benignant dreams restore,
 Ere cold Experience damp'd Hope's vivid glow,
 And life the aspect of enjoyment wore.
 So far indulg'd, I yet a boon implore,
 Greater than man or fortune can bestow—
 Perpetuate the dream, and let me wake no more !'

Of the regular Sonnets, we shall copy only one, denominated

' A PRAYER.

' Still grant me, Heav'n ! while I remain below,
 To wear the moments of Life's fleeting hour,
 With calm Contentment, in Seclusion's bow'r,
 Too high to dread contemptuous Pride, too low
 To fear sly Envy's sting or ambush'd blow.
 Ne'er let me, Heav'n, intreat a boon of Pow'r,
 Nor to its minions aught of homage show,
 Nor ever measure Merit by her dow'r,

Be no professions mine at Truth's expense,
 But make me, feeling right, speak as I feel;
 Still from opinion to my heart appeal,
 And rule demeanour by the moral sense.
 Propitious Heav'n, so let my moments fly;
 So let me live with peace, with resignation die !

If these samples please the reader, he will naturally desire a fuller acquaintance with Vectis' female bard.

Art. 22. *The Wonders of a Week at Bath*; in a doggrel Address to the Hon. T. S——, from F. T——, Esq. of that City. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cawthorne. 1811.

Doggrel indeed ! The wit must be genuine, and thickly sown, to make amends for so sorry a vehicle. Ansty shewed humour in pouring the follies of Bath ; and many others, since the publication of his Guide, have thought that, if they wrote of Bath in Hudibrastic or doggrel verse, they must be witty in course. To say that we have not smiled at some of the couplets in this address would be to deviate from the truth : but, if we take the poem altogether, it must be pronounced a vapid performance. Perhaps the best piece of satire is that which respects Laura-chapel, under the head *Sunday* :

‘ Ah Laura ! dear Laura, to whom on this day,
 My ardent devotions I constantly pay,
 How often, with rapture, I think on thy graces !
 How often I sleep in thy silken embraces !
 “ Make love on a Sunday, that's pious ”— say you,
 My Laura's a church—her embraces a pew !
 There I have one seat, and my grandmother one,
 She gives me a jog when the Doctor has done ;
 But says that it's strange that a body can doze,
 When the sermon's so good, and the pulpit so close ;
 His sense and his action so highly delight her,
 She wonders such merit has miss'd of a mitre.
 I too am surpris'd, for I know that the said
 Is made of the wood of which bishops are made.’

The author has printed his verses on paper which is so *substantial*, that he seems to have designed it to last for ever : but we fear that not even this aid will confer immortality on his effusions.

Art. 23. *Poems on various Subjects.* By the Rev. Dr. Lucas. Written chiefly in the early Part of the Author's Life. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

Dr. Lucas's translation of the Hymn to Ceres was reviewed in the M. R. Vol. lxvi. page 414. It forms a part of the present volume ; of which, therefore, we have now only to consider the original poems. As specimens of versification, indeed as poetical performances altogether, we are sorry to be compelled to remark that they are not calculated to acquire much fame for the learned author. Humour seems to be his forte, but it is not of the first style :

‘ What

'What pity 'tis one cannot tell
 Without the Muse, a story well !
 'Twas she assisted Johnny Gay,
 And made his wit so full of play ;
 'Twas she that lived so long with Swift,
 And lent him, now and then, a lift :
 Alas ! *my* Muse, you all must know,
 And *I* have parted long ago,' &c. &c.

'Sarah and the Pig, a Tale.'

'Jerry and the Ram' is another poem in this whimsical collection ; but 'Boughton Green' is the *chef d'œuvre*. Here the author describes the humours of the country-fair, with some success : witness the following introduction of his machinery, at a combat between the blacksmith and the miller :

P. 179. 'Nor unassisted by celestial might
 Began the combatants their arduous fight :
 Long since, great Vulcan—who, in time of yore,
 Ruled the fierce fires that blazed on Lemnos' shore ;
 Who, 'midst *Ætnean* rage, with *Cyclops* strove,
 And forged the thunderbolts of angry Jove—
 Long since, the God forsook his old retreat,
 And fix'd at Birmingham his sooty seat :
 There his dark labour through the town conveys
 Unnumber'd crowds, that blacken all the ways ;
 For *him*, a thousand altars burst with fires,
 Within a thousand temples *he* inspires ;
 And whilst the artists feel the impulse grow,
 Provoke the flame and multiply the blow,
 The God, delighted, hears the spreading sound
 That clamours all his glowing precincts round ;
 Or, high in air, beholds the rising fume,
 Snuffs the black incense and enjoys the gloom.'

Some of the similes, too, are fair examples of the mock-heroic :

'So when (in honour of Patroclus slain)
 The chiefs contended on the Trojan plain,
 In the dire scuffle Ithacus fell on
 The grumbling stomach of huge Telamon !'

Several of the Doctor's expressions are unusually forced and awkward. What can he mean by the verb in the second line of the following couplet ?

'But oft the labour of the coachman fails
 The rust to *barass* from the brazen nails ?'

'*Droit* address,' '*tickle Numps's breech*,' and some other familiarities, are scarcely sanctioned by the allowable licence of facetious composition ; and several of the attempts at wit fail ludicrously enough. A waggon, full of various utensils, is well described : but the conclusion of the description does not strike our fancy :

'Whilst

' Whilst out behind, 'where pliant poles prevail,
The merry waggon seems to wag his tail.'

The old riding-habit, which has become too small for the growing charms of its country mistress, is better represented in the following simile :

' So, when a tender bud begins to sprout,
A friendly blossom clothes it round-about ;
Till, ripening into fruit through Nature's sway,
It proudly swells, and casts its robe away.'

Dr. Lucas is too fond of elisions, and sometimes of alliteration ;

— ' like a fencing rampart serves s'engage,
And check the ruin of rough Boreas' rage.'

We cannot say even so much as we have said above, in favour of the more serious poems in this volume : — but in some verses which bear the quaint title of '*Funus procedit—sequimur—*' we have the following stanza, which appears to us original and good :

' Close to the kindred dead, deep wrapt in woes,
The heavy heart pursues, and streaming eye ;
While down the train the sorrow fainter grows,
And ends in gazing curiosity.'

Art. 24. *The Sabine Farm*, a Poem : into which is interwoven a Series of Translations, chiefly descriptive of the Villa and Life of Horace ; occasioned by an Excursion from Rome to Licenza. By Robert Bradstreet, Esq., A. M. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Mawman. 1810.

Mr. Bradstreet is a classical traveller ; and if he does not throw the perfect charms of composition (which only an Addison, perhaps, could have bestowed) on the interesting scenes of his excursion, he cannot fail to please every reader of taste, by the larger portion of the present volume. Many, we are persuaded, will willingly accompany him, when, as he sings,

— ' I steal away,
To where, "behind Vacuna's mould'ring fane,"
The Sabine poet pour'd his moral strain :
And, in the very shades where he retir'd,
Echo th' immortal verse they once inspir'd ;
Nor pass, unsung, each interesting scene,
Whose ruins mark the classic ground between.'

We, however, shall confine our selections to those parts of the '*Sabine Farm*,' in which the author has endeavoured to make Horace describe his own retirement in his own manner ; and several of these translations (for they are close enough for that title in the strictest sense) are in our judgment very fairly executed, although we must mark some verbal exceptions.

P. 73. ' 'Tis not the dream of Fancy—for I hear
His own words vibrate on my charmed ear,
While pleasure, mixt with awe, my bosom fills—
YOUR'S, O YE NINE ! I MOUNT THE SABINE HILLS !
Whether

Whether the cool Præneste charm'd before,
 Tibur supine, or Baiae's liquid shore !
 Oh when shall I behold thee, rural seat ?
 When, in the calm of undisturb'd retreat,
 With books, and idle hours, and soothing sleep,
 The cares of life in sweet oblivion steep ?

* * * * *

• Let his own numbers paint his Sabine Farm !

* * * * *

• Uninterrupted mountains fill the scene,
 Save where a shady valley sinks between ;
 Whose right the beam of rising Phæbus feels ;
 Whose left is warm'd by his declining wheels.
 You needs must praise the climate : what if there
 Each bush, wild plums, and ruddy cornels bear ?
 If oaks, and holm oaks, grateful to the sight,
 The herd with food, their lord with shade delight ?
 So leafy is the scene, *that you might swear*
 Tarentum's self, with all its groves, were there.
 A spring, whose name *might well a river grace,*
 (More cool and pure *not* Hebrus circles Thrace)
 To headache and digestion useful flows—
 Such my lov'd seat of leisure and repose,
 Whose sweet, nay trust me, ev'n delicious bow'rs,
 Yield health a shelter in September hours.

* * * * *

F. 86. • THIS WAS MY WISH—of land a smaller plot ;
 A spring perpetual running near my cot ;
 A garden, and with these a little wood—
 But the Gods more and better gave—'tis good !
 Nor will I weary Heaven to swell my store,
 Nor from my powerful friend solicit more.—

* * * * *

Ah why exchange my Sabine vale so fair,
 For more oppressive opulence and care ?
 Oh nights and banquets of the Gods ! when met,
 Around the table I and mine are set !
 When, mixt with herbs, *Pythagoras' kindred* * *beans,*
 Enrich'd with bacon, on my board is seen !
 In sight of my *own proper* *lar* I eat,
 And give to my gay limbs the tasted meat, &c. &c.

Mr. B. seems to forget, on some occasions, that 'a noble author will not be pursued by too close a version ; and that we lose his spirit while we think to take his body.' Indeed this is Mr. Bradstreet's principal fault ; and we shall be contented with apprizing him of it, without entering into a farther or more specific detail of the blemishes in this generally respectable performance.

* Quære, kidney ?

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

The concluding remarks in p. 194. of our last Number, on some parts of the *New Cyclopædia* which we considered as trespassing on decorum, have drawn from the Rev. Editor of that work a letter to us, which he requests us to print. We must decline, however, to fulfil this desire, both because we confess that the letter does not appear to us to make any difference in the matter as it before stood, and because, if we printed it, we must substantiate remarks in reply by specific references to the work, and thus commit the fault which we have censured. It must suffice therefore for us to state, 1st, that Dr. Rees defends the article to which we objected on the ground of necessary adherence to the plan of universality; and 2dly, that he sees no danger of its injuring the female mind, because he concludes that no female will read the pages in question when she observes the subject of them. — On the first point, we delivered our opinion in the article above cited, and Dr. R.'s letter contains nothing that can alter it: neither does he advert to our observation that, if such necessity existed, the *dernier ressort* should have been a learned language for the medium: but we never can concede this point of necessity. Though a Cyclopædia is designed to embrace all subjects, it is not (as we before observed) to supersede all other books in the library of a literary or a scientific man; and it never can be made so complete as to render it unnecessary for the man of science or the professor of an art, in all branches whatever, to have recourse to specific treatises, if he wishes to enter deeply, minutely, and speculatively into his subject. We shall maintain, then, that if any one such subject exists, it is that in question; which not only would admit but which demands a degree of superficiality, that would leave the inquisitive speculatist to consult the distinct treatises on these topics which have appeared; and it is of prodigality in gratification, of excess in minutiae, that we have complained and do complain, on topics too which may indulge prurient curiosity rather than augment practical wisdom. — As to the second point, can Dr. Rees argue that it is wise to place temptation before frail mortals, under the hope that it will be resisted; or that a profane renovation of experiments with *forbidden fruit* should be tried on the daughters of Eve? The Doctor speaks of having regulated his opinion by females with whom he has been acquainted. If we dispute not the excellence of his female circle, we will arraign his judgment if he has erected an universal standard on his own fortunate experience: but, as he is no Papist, he has not (we conclude) been the depository of the *confessions* of all his fair friends.

When Dr. Rees adds that he hopes his remarks will form a sufficient *vindication of his conduct*, we wish to state our conviction that his conduct needs no vindication on the ground of *motive* and *intent*. An error in judgment is all that we presume to impute to him.

Other letters are unavoidably postponed.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1811.

ART. I. *An Account of the Kingdom of Nepaul*, being the Substance of Observations made during a Mission to that Country, in the Year 1793, by Colonel Kirkpatrick. Illustrated with a Map and other Engravings. 4to. pp. 407. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1811.

No part of the world has made us so much indebted as India to our military countrymen, for information respecting the scenes of their official operations; and no where, perhaps, have more virtues of every kind been displayed by them. Of the voluminous information which we now possess, with regard to the physical and moral circumstances of the regions owning the British authority in Asia, a large proportion has been derived entirely from the talents, the liberal curiosity, and the patriotic communications, of military men.

Nepaul, however, though forming a part of a large range of country which is nearly connected with our Indian dominions, has hitherto been little known to Europeans. An immense chain of mountains divides Hindoostan from Tibet; and the valleys on the Indian side of this enormous ridge contain various nations, who have not yet excited much curiosity: among these may be reckoned Nagarcot, Sirinagur, Camaoun, Nepaul, Chookra, Camroop, and Assam. Cashmir is a kingdom in the same range, and in many respects, bearing a striking analogy to Nepaul: but, from its having attracted the attention and fallen under the dominion of the Mogul emperors of Hindoostan, it has become well known; while Nepaul, like the other kingdoms of this mountainous region, remained excluded from the notice of Europeans by its surrounding mountains, till a recent period. Lord Cornwallis, among his comprehensive views, projected a connection with Nepaul: but the steps which he took were not followed up; and the author of the preface to the work before us (which preface is apparently written by or in the name and on the behalf of the publisher) ascribes this misfortune, for such he deems it, to the sinister interests of individuals;—‘ of individuals desirous of preserving

the exclusive influence and profitable monopoly, which the jealousy of the Nepaul government had enabled them to acquire, and which they saw endangered by the closer approach of the two governments.'

An event occurred, however, which more particularly attracted the attention of the British government, and led to the proceedings of which the present account was one of the results. The government of Nepaul had committed some aggressions on the rights of the Lama of Tibet beyond the mountains: the Emperor of China had at this time taken the Lama under his protection: he accordingly resented the injury done to his ally; and, great as was the distance, a Chinese army was sent to chastise the Nepaulians. In this distress, the Court of Nepaul applied to the Governor General at Calcutta; and mediation at least was promised. Before the British mission, however, of which Colonel Kirkpatrick was placed at the head, reached the confines of Nepaul, the Nepaulians had contrived to settle their own quarrel with their enemies, who had evacuated the territory; and the former would very willingly have now dispensed with the visit of the Colonel: but the English government, which expected advantages from an improved connection with the country, pressed his reception; and the Nepaulians, who thought that they could not with a good grace, after he had come so far on their errand, absolutely refuse to admit him, sent at last to Patna an invitation for him to proceed. The volume now on our table is a sort of memoir of what was observed and ascertained by the author during his progress and stay in the kingdom; where, however, he was allowed to remain only a few weeks, and to see very little, being watched and restrained with Japanese jealousy and suspicion. It follows, as a necessary consequence, that he learned not much: but where nothing was known before, and when our curiosity is naturally high, even a small contribution is useful; and we deem ourselves indebted in no ordinary degree to Colonel Kirkpatrick, for the use which he made of his time and opportunities. Though certain notices had been conveyed to us through the volumes of the Asiatic Researches, they were so imperfect as to whet curiosity rather than to satisfy it. With regard to several particulars, moreover, and such as are of no slight importance, Colonel Kirkpatrick has given us information which is not to be considered as very incomplete.

As to the form of the work, it is necessary to state that it is in fact the official report of the author, drawn up during his embassy, for the instruction of his employers; and which has been obtained, by the liberality of the East India Company, from their records, for the purpose of publication. We are

told that the author, deeming it in some respects not adapted to meet the public eye, committed it to a literary gentleman, who was requested to give it the requisite preparation : but that, he dying without having performed his task, it is now printed by Mr. Miller in nearly its original form. We own that, in cases of this sort, we regard the merely *literary* recommendations of the work as a secondary consideration ; and the author who communicates important knowledge respecting unknown regions shall not pass without our tribute of applause, though he possess not all the graces of composition and style. As far, however, as a perusal of the present performance enables us to judge, Colonel Kirkpatrick had no occasion to be so diffident ; and in fact his style is fully as elevated as the occasion requires. We shall be very well pleased when it falls to our lot to receive as much more information respecting Nepaul, though dressed up with no greater parade of authorship.

The kingdom of Nepaul lies directly north from the province of Oude, on which it borders. The only remarkable object which the traveller saw on his route was the great forest, with respect to which the reader is presented with some curious details :

‘ I was three hours in proceeding from what is considered as the proper entrance of the great forest, to the village of Jhurjhoory, which may be said to mark its northern limit ; I therefore judge its breadth by the road to be somewhat under ten miles ; for though the ground throughout was very good, yet as we were occasionally not a little impeded by trees that lay felled across our path, and by others under which it was not easy to pass, I cannot allow more than three miles and a quarter per hour. The horizontal depth assigned to this forest in the Map, is eight miles and a half. Our course, for a short time after we entered it, was about north ; it was next a good deal easterly ; and during the last hour lay considerably to the westward.

‘ This forest skirts the Nepaul territories throughout their whole extent from Serinugur to the Teesta, separating them every where, either from the Company’s or the Vizier’s possessions. It is not, of course, equally close or deep in every place ; some parts having been more or less cleared away, especially those which are situated most favourably for the commerce of timber, or in the vicinity of flourishing towns. To the eastward some considerable tracts are reported to be quite clear. I cannot pretend to enumerate the great varieties of its trees ; but the principal for size or utility are, the Saul, the Sissoo, the Setti-saul, the Phullamikh (or iron-wood), the Kalikâht (a sort of black wood), the Sâjh, the Bhurra, the Summi, and the Mûlta. The ebony is also, I understand, found here. This forest is much over-run in the Jhurjhoory quarter with underwood and long grass. The part most resorted to by the wood-dealers appears to be

that which borders on the Boggah district, timber being transported from thence even to the distance of Calcutta. I am inclined to think, however, that, notwithstanding the convenience afforded by the vicinity of the Gunduck, a more advantageous spot might be selected for the operations of the wood-merchants. The Nepaul government levy, I believe, very high, and consequently, in a commercial view at least, impolitic duties on this traffic: whether or not they are influenced, in this respect, by the idea that the vigorous prosecution of it would have the effect of diminishing the strength of the barrier which this forest no doubt constitutes, I had not an opportunity of ascertaining. Upon my remarking on the ill tendency of such restraints, it was thought a sufficient justification of them to declare, that they had not originated with the present government, which did no more than follow the ancient practice in this particular.

Besides valuable timber, this forest affords another source of profit to the Nepaul government in its numerous elephants; but this, like the timber, is not improved so much as it might be. The Governor of the Turrye told me, that in his district, which reaches from Somoisir to the Kousi, there were caught annually between two and three hundred elephants; much the greater part of these, however, are very young, being not above five hants, or seven feet and a half high; nor can they well be supposed able to catch any of a superior size, as the animals are not driven into a keddah, or inclosure, but are caught by snares or nooses thrown over their necks by a mahoot seated on a decoy elephant. The rope being immediately drawn, the end of it is secured round a tree, from which it is easy to conceive that they often break loose, and are not unfrequently strangled in their struggles. There is, therefore, a double disadvantage attending this imperfect mode of catching these animals, for while it clearly tends to diminish the breed, it renders the elephants so prematurely caught of little value; there are, accordingly, very few of this great number sold for the benefit of the government, who claim an exclusive right to the whole, and dispose of them, for the most part, in presents, or in commutation of occasional services, and pecuniary demands.

A third branch of revenue arising from this forest consists in a duty levied upon the cattle of Chemparun and other districts, bordering on the Nepaul territories, which graze here annually about four months, the pasturage between October and January being deemed excellent; but as this duty is confined to bulfidoes (cows being exempted under the present government), and never exceeds two annas per head for the season, its amount cannot be very considerable.

Besides elephants, this forest is said to be greatly infested by rhinoceroses and tigers. The latter appear almost invariably solitary, but two or three elephants, I have been told, will sometimes take possession of the road, and obstruct the progress of travellers a considerable time: a large herd of them assaulted the camp of the Nepaul deputies at Jhurjhoory, when they were on their way to Patna, and were got rid of with difficulty. They sometimes issue from the forest in droves, and over-run the cultivated country on its borders, penetrating even, now and then, a good way into the Company's districts.

tricts. We did not, however, meet with a single wild beast of any kind in the whole course of our journey.'

The first and the second chapters contain an account of the route from Munniary to Hettowra, and from Segouly to Hettowra; and the third describes the routes from Hettowra to Khatmanda. To those who are or may be interested in the channels of intercourse between Bengal and Nepaul, the details here presented, which seem to delineate with accuracy the roads, and the modes both of travelling and of conveying goods, are calculated to be very useful. The rivers, during the rainy season, are navigable to a certain height; and beyond this, the roads run through valleys and among mountains, over ascents and descents, in many parts so narrow and precipitous, that even beasts of burthen cannot pass, and goods are transported on the backs of men.

The remarkable country which we are now contemplating is, as it were, a bason, formed by a chain of high mountains, which surround it in an elliptical shape on all sides. Its figure and appearance countenance the idea which prevails in the country, with regard to this peculiar valley, in the same manner as with regard to Cashmir, which in physical circumstances so nearly resembles it; viz. that it was originally filled with water, confined by the circular mound of mountains; and that from a lake it became land, by the waters forcing for themselves a passage at the spot on which the rivers now issue from the valley. Colonel Kirkpatrick thus describes it:

'The valley of Nepaul is nearly of an oval figure; its greatest extent is from north to south, in which direction it may be computed at twelve horizontal miles. It stretches from east to west about nine miles, and its circuit is roughly estimated by the inhabitants at twenty-five coss, or from forty to fifty miles. It is bounded on the north and south by very stupendous mountains, near the foot of which rise several of those humbler eminences called Collines in Switzerland: indeed the bottom of the valley, besides being in general extremely uneven, and intersected by deep ravines, occasioned by autumnal inundations, is speckled throughout at various distances with similar little hills. To the east and west the enclosing mountains are much less lofty, the immediate head of the valley to the westward being defined principally by a low steep ridge covered with brush-wood, and anciently called Maroor, but at present, most commonly, Naga-Arjoon, from the name of an idol for which it is famous. This ridge passes close behind Sumbhoo-nath, and is itself backed by a more considerable one, named Dhôc-noak, of which some mention has already been made in describing the valley of Doona, and regarding which, I have nothing further to add, than that it is said to contain a lake strongly impregnated with mineral salt, and celebrated under the name of Indra-pokhra. To the eastward, the most remarkable hills are those of Rauchoak and Mahabut or

Mahadeo-pokhra ; but they by no means reach the elevation either of Phalchoak (which is the most towering of the summits that illustrate the southern confine of the valley) or of Sheopoori, which constitutes its principal barrier to the northward, and is unquestionably by far the highest of all the mountains that encircle it. The other chief links of this superb chain are mount Kukunni, which stretches westerly from Sheopoori, being united to Nagâ-Arjoon by mount Bheerbundy, and Chumpadaibi, which, with one or two more inferior peaks, complete the girdle by joining Chandraghiri to Phalchoak.

As it was not in our power to ascend to the top, either of Sheopoori or of Phalchoak, and as the nature of the ground, no less than considerations of prudence, opposed any attempt at the actual measurement of a base, we had not the means of ascertaining either by the barometer or geometrically, the altitudes of those mountains. I am inclined to think, however, on a comparison of the result of a rough calculation, built upon their computed horizontal distance, and the angles of their summits with the heights of some adjacent peaks, as denoted by the barometer, that mount Sheopoori is not much less than fourteen hundred, and that Phalchoak is nearly twelve hundred, yards above the level of Sumbhoo-nath. Mount Jibjibia erects its aspiring head about a point to the westward of Sheopoori, which, notwithstanding its respectable elevation, sinks before its super-towering neighbour to the rank of a moderate colline. But though Jibjibia rises probably more than two thousand yards above the loftiest part of Sheopoori, yet it yields in its turn to the amazing rampart of snow which shoots up on its right, and, in spite of its vicinity and the immense height of the interposing mountains, is easily described from the foot of Sumbhoo-nath. Indeed this magnificent object is said to be visible at Khatmanda, in clear weather, from between the points of N. N. W. and E. N. E. It will hardly be supposed, however, that such a spacious prospect can be unbroken throughout. To enjoy so august a sight, one must ascend, perhaps, to the top of Chandraghiri, though I am inclined to think that the landscape is not less entire from the inferior height of Cheesapany, whence the sides and summits of this stupendous chain stand, to a very great extent, completely revealed to the eye. The eastern extremity of this interesting view is marked by a pile of snowy mountains, which I imagine to be that part of Himma-leh lying just above Kooté, the horizontal distance of which from Khatmanda is forty-eight miles.

Sheopoori gives rise to the Bhâgmuttery and Bishnmuttery rivers ; the sources of the former, (which also bears the name of the Bremhaserassutti,) are situated on the north side of the mountain, round the east foot of which, this river winds, and soon enters the valley of Nepal, traversing it in a meandering course, the general direction of which is southerly. It is a very inconsiderable brook at Pussputtery-nath, close under which it flows, but receiving in its progress from thence several tributary currents, its channel gradually widens, till it assumes, in passing between Patn and Khatmanda the appearance of a respectable stream. Upon the Bishnmuttery's yielding its waters and name to it a little way below the south end of Khatmanda, it hastens towards Gunnaish-than, and some other low hills standing at

at the foot of mount Chandra-ghiri, along the bottom of which it rushes precipitately, as if impatient to force a passage through the superior ridge, and at length escapes from the valley by an opening that presents itself between Phalchoak and Chumpa-daibi, after which I know nothing certain concerning it, till it re-appears at Hurrihurpoor, from whence its continuation to Munniary has been probably laid down with sufficient accuracy by Major Rennel. I have been generally informed, however, that its course between the valley of Nepaul and Hurrihurpoor lies through an immensely wild and rugged country, that its channel is choaked with huge rocks, and overhung by impenetrable woods, and that it falls, in two or three points, in very considerable cataracts, the most remarkable of which is said to occur at a place called Bysia. Its descent also immediately from Hurrihurpoor is represented as exceedingly rapid; but it would appear to resume a tolerably gentle current almost immediately after precipitating itself from thence into the valley below, as boats from the Turrye occasionally ascend to within an easy distance of that town.

The Bishnmuttery, called likewise the Dhurma-nuddi and Bremhabode, issues from the south side of Sheepoori, entering the valley of Nepaul not far to the northward of Bâla Neel-khent; and, after washing the west face of Khatminda, empties itself into the Bhâgmuttery. The water of this river is not in equal estimation with that of the Bhâgmuttery, which is said to be much lighter and wholesomer; indeed the people of this country pretend, that all the streams which descend along the north faces of mountains, are preferable to such as spring from a southern aspect; but perhaps the inferiority of the Bishnmuttery in this respect may partly be owing to the circumstance of its receiving no accession of water throughout its course, and of its being every where a very shallow; and, comparatively with the other, rather a sluggish stream. With regard to the nature of the soil over which it passes, it would not appear to differ from that which constitutes the bed of the Bhâgmuttery.

Besides the rivers just described, there are several other streams which flow through the valley of Nepaul, and contribute greatly to its fertilization. The principal of these are Dhobee-kola, the Munnokra, the Hunnumunta, and the Kushen-kooshen, the Bhâgmuttery finally receiving the waters of the whole. Dhobee-kola (or Roodurmuttery of antiquity) rises, as well as the Bishnmuttery, from the south side of mount Sheepoori, and passing at the distance of about a mile and a half to the eastward of Khatminda, pursues a course nearly south till it falls into the Bhâgmuttery, which it does a little way above the junction of that stream with the Bishnmuttery. The Munnokra, called also the Munnmuttery, issues from a small lake near Buijgur-joogni, a place of considerable sanctity in the vicinity of Sânkû. It runs, like the generality of the streams which intersect this valley, in a southerly direction, passing, at the distance of about a mile, to the eastward of the Bhâgmuttery, into which it discharges itself, after a very short course, near Patn. The Hunnumunta, or Bhuddermuttery of the sacred writings, springs from Mahadeo-pokhra, and after winding round the south-west angle of Bhatgong, hastens to meet the Kushen-

kooshen (or Kansabutti), which it does about half a mile to the westward of that city. This last rivulet has its rise from Chângoo-nerain; and after passing along the north-east side of Bhatgong, soon yields its waters and its name to the Hunnumunta, which proceeds but a short way before it disembogues itself into the Bhâgmatty.

The Colonel then proceeds to a description of the cities and towns, which is highly necessary to complete the picture. We shall exhibit, as a specimen, the account of the principal city:

‘Of these Khatmânda is entitled to the first rank, not so much, indeed, on account of its superior size or population, as because it is at present reckoned the capital of Nepaul, from being the residence of the Rajah. It stands on the east bank of the Bishnmatty, along which it stretches in length about a mile; its breadth is inconsiderable, no where exceeding half, and seldom extending beyond a quarter of a mile, its figure being said by the natives to resemble the Kohra or scimeter of Daiby. The entrance to it from the westward, near which extremity of the valley it is situated, is by two slight bridges thrown over the Bishnmatty, one of them at the north, the other near the south end of the town. The name by which it is distinguished in ancient books is Gongool-putten: the Newars call it Yindaise, whilst among the Purbutties, or mountaineers, it is styled Kathipoor, an appellation which seems to proceed from the same source with Khâtmandû, the present popular appellation of this city, and derived, as it is said, from its numerous wooden temples, which are, indeed, among the most striking objects it offers to the eye. These edifices are not confined to the body of the town, but are scattered over its environs, and particularly along the sides of a quadrangular tank or reservoir of water, situated a short way beyond the north-east quarter of the town, and called Rani-pokhra. They appear to differ nothing in their figure or construction from the wooden Mundubs occasionally met with in other parts of India, and are principally remarkable for their number and size, some of them being of considerable elevation and proportionate bulk. Besides these, Khâtmandû contains several other temples on a large scale, and constructed of brick, with two, three, and four sloping roofs, diminishing gradually as they ascend, and terminating pretty generally in pinnacles, which, as well as some of the superior roofs, are splendidly gilt, and produce a very picturesque and agreeable effect.

‘The houses are of brick and tile, with pitched or pent-roofs; towards the street they have frequently enclosed wooden balconies of open carved work, and of a singular fashion, the front piece, instead of rising perpendicularly, projecting in a sloping direction towards the eaves of the roof. They are of two, three, and four stories, and almost without a single exception, of a mean appearance; even the Rajah’s house being but a sorry building, and claiming no particular notice. The streets are excessively narrow, and nearly as filthy as those of Benares.

‘Khâtmandû was reckoned, during the time of Jye Purkaush, to contain about twenty-two thousand houses; but this amount is affirmed

affirmed to have been very much augmented since that period, though not without some consequent decrease in the numbers of Patn and Bhatgong. This statement, however, must of necessity be understood as comprehending not only the population of the town itself, but of its dependent villages, it being manifest that there cannot stand, at the most, above five thousand houses on the ground occupied by this city; and, indeed, though all those I discoursed with on this point, appeared desirous of magnifying the number of its inhabitants, yet some of them pretty clearly admitted that the specified statement was meant to include most of its subordinate towns or hamlets, which are not less than from twenty to thirty, of which Sânkû, Changoo-nerain, Ghokurna, Deopâtn, Hânrigong, Pâpigong, Chuprigong, and some others, rank as considerable places. Allowing then ten persons to a house or family, which is probably rather a low standard for the houses of Khâtmandû, its population will amount to about fifty thousand souls, which I should take to be its full complement. At the same rate the numbers occupying the remaining seventeen thousand houses formerly included within the jurisdiction of Khatmânda, would be one hundred and seventy thousand; but as the buildings of the inferior towns are, generally speaking, on a much smaller scale than those of the metropolis, I should judge eight to a house, on an average, to be an ample allowance, which would reduce the population of the subordinates to one hundred and thirty-six thousand, giving one hundred and eighty-six thousand for the total population of the capital and its districts, in which last, however, it is not intended to include Doona-baise, Noako.e, Nerjah, or any other of the dependencies of the Khatmânda sovereignty lying beyond the valley. I confess that this calculation is exceedingly vague, and that, with respect to the canton or principality at large, I think it likely to be under the truth, though, perhaps, not in any considerable degree. It is proper, however, to notice here, that the most reasonable of my informants would not admit Sânkû to have ever been comprehended in the population attributed to Khatmânda. Sânkû was formerly a place of great magnitude, but does not contain at present above a thousand families.'

With respect to the climate of Nepaul, the Colonel affords some acceptable informaton, of a favourable character: but we must pass on to another particular, viz. the population. On this head, the opportunities of the author did not enable him to collect very minute details: but his statements are sufficiently interesting:

'Adverting to the very wild and rugged nature of the country, we shall see no great room for imagining its population to be considerable; the valleys only are of any account in estimating the numbers of the inhabitants, and they are, with the exception of Nepaul itself, and perhaps two or three others, little better than so many mountainous cavities. Even the Turrye, or Turryani, generally speaking, would seem to be but indifferently peopled, the villages throughout it being, as far as I can learn, very thinly scattered, and in most places of a mean rank in point of magnitude, as well

well as appearance. But whatever the fact in this respect may be, it is certain that we are altogether unfurnished with any documents that would warrant our hazarding even a conjecture on the subject, the materials we possess for judging of the population of the valley of Nepaul itself being at the best extremely vague, and enabling us only to state it loosely at about half a million.

‘The inhabitants consist principally of the two superior classes of Hindoos (or Brahmins and Chetrees with their various subdivisions), of Newars, of Dhenwars, of Mhanjees, of Bhootias, and of Bhanrās. The former of these, who compose the army of the state, and engross all situations of trust, whether civil or military, are found dispersed promiscuously throughout the country; the Newars are confined almost to the valley of Nepaul; the Dhenwars and Mhanjees are the husbandmen and fishers of the western districts; and the Bhootias, though some families of them are planted in the lower lands, occupy, generally speaking, such parts of the Kuchâr as are included in the Nepaul territories. With respect to the Bhanrās, they have already been mentioned, as being a sort of separatists from the Newars; they are supposed to amount to about five thousand; they shave their heads like the Bhootias, and observe many of the religious rites, as well as civil customs, of these idolators, in a dialect of whose language they are also said to preserve their sacred writings. To the eastward again, some districts of the Nepaul dominions are inhabited by tribes, such as the Limboos, Nuggerkootees, and others, of whom we know at this time little more than the names.

‘The Newars are divided into several casts or orders, most of which derive their origin, like those among the more ancient Hindoos, from a primitive classification according to trades and occupations. I reserve an enumeration of these, as well as a full account of the history, religion, government, customs, and manners of the Newars, for a future period, when my information on these points shall be more complete and satisfactory than it is at present: in the mean time, although I have not thought it necessary to refrain altogether from noticing occasionally some particulars concerning this interesting people, yet these sketches are to be considered as a mere outline arising incidentally, and, as it were, unavoidably, out of the nature of our immediate enquiry, and by no means as proceeding from a puerile desire of anticipating a subject, which I am of opinion is well entitled to a very full and deliberate discussion.

‘Nepaul having been ruled for many centuries past by Rajepoot princes, and the various classes of Hindoos appearing, in all periods, to have composed a great proportion of its population, we are naturally prepared to find a general resemblance in manners and customs between this part of its inhabitants, and the kindred sects established in the adjacent countries; accordingly, the characteristics which separate them, whether in point of manners, usages or dress, are so faint as to be scarcely discernable in a single instance, insomuch that I own the agreement greatly exceeded what I could have expected upon adverting to the peculiarity, in many respects, of the local circumstances in which the Hindoos of this valley are placed, to the little fraternity
they

they have ever entertained with the neighbouring nations, to their political union or intermixture, during several centuries, with the Newars, and above all, to the very important consideration presented in the remarkable, and indeed, (if I am not mistaken) solitary fact, of Nepaul being the only Hindoo country that has never been disturbed; far less subdued, by any Mussulman power. In one essential particular, nevertheless, these mountaineers appear to me to be very prominently discriminated, and that is by a simplicity of character universally observable amongst them. I am aware that this is a feature, which, with a few exceptions, more or less strikingly marks the Hindoo character throughout India, but whether it be owing to the secluded situation of Nepaul, or to some cause still more operative, the simplicity which distinguishes the inhabitants of this rugged region is manifested no less in the superior than the lower ranks of people, appears in all their modes of life, whether public or domestic, little of ostentation or parade ever entering into either, and is very generally accompanied by an innocency and suavity of deportment, by an ease and frankness in conversation, and I am disposed to think too, by an integrity of conduct not so commonly to be met with among their more polished or opulent brethren.

Between the Newars, however, and the other Hindoo inhabitants of Nepaul, there subsist, as well in character, customs, manners, and features, as in religious rites and language, very essential differences, all of them abundantly proving that they are an insulated race of men, whose origin is not to be traced to any of the nations immediately surrounding them. They are a peaceable, industrious, and even ingenious people, very much attached to the superstition they profess, and tolerably reconciled to the chains imposed on them by their Goorkhali conquerors, although these have not hitherto condescended to conciliate them by the means which their former sovereigns, who were Rajepoots of the Soorej-bunsi race, adopted, and who, among other compliances with the usages of the Newars, made no scruple, it seems, of feeding on the flesh of buffaloes.

I doubt whether this nation have been at any period of a war-like disposition; be this as it may, it is certain that their courage is at present spoken of very slightly by the Purbutties, or Hindoo mountaineers, and that the instances of their being employed in the armies of the state are exceedingly rare. Their occupations are chiefly those of agriculture, besides which they almost exclusively execute all the arts and manufactures known in this country. Their modes of husbandry prove them to be capable of immense labour, no less than the burthens which they carry shew that they possess great corporal strength, while many of their mechanical operations equally evince that they are tolerably well skilled in some of the most useful arts. They are in general of a middle size, with broad shoulders and chest, very stout limbs, round and rather flat faces, small eyes, low and somewhat spreading noses, and, finally, open and cheerful countenances; yet I cannot agree with those who affirm that there is in the general physiognomy of these people, any striking resemblance to the Chinese features. Many of the women we saw, especially at Bhatgong,

Bhatgong; had a remarkable florid tint about their cheeks ; for the most part, however, their complexion, like that of the men, is somewhat between a sallow and copper colour ; the ordinary cast of their features corresponds with that of the males, notwithstanding which, there are said to be many handsome women among them. The illicit progeny of a Newar female and a Chetree, or other Purbutti, (for they cannot intermarry) might almost be taken for Malays ; at least, that is the physiognomy by which it appears to me the features of this mixed race may, on the whole, be best illustrated ; though, perhaps, the faces both of Bajoo Sheer and Rodur Beer (who are the issue of Rajepoots, by Newar women) approach still nearer to the Tartar or Chinese. It is remarkable enough that the Newar women, like those among the Nairs, may, in fact, have as many husbands as they please, being at liberty to divorce them continually on the slightest pretences.

‘ As I am not without hopes of being able, at no very remote period, not only to explain at large the superstitious dogmas, rites, and ceremonies of the Newars, but also to be instrumental, at least, in throwing some light on the Boudhite system of theology, at present so little understood, I shall not touch in this place on either of those subjects. With regard to the popular religion of Nepaul, in general, seeing that it differs nothing from the Hinduism established in Bengal and other parts of India, excepting so far as the secluded nature of the country may have conduced to preserve it in a state of superior orthodoxy and purity, it would be altogether superfluous to enter into any details concerning it ; I shall therefore content myself with naming here the temples of most consideration in the valley of Nepaul, and with subjoining an account of the most remarkable festivals annually celebrated by its inhabitants.’

Of the exports and imports of Nepaul, an enumeration is given ; and the Colonel adds :

‘ With respect to the state of arts and manufactures in Nepaul, interesting as the subject doubtless is, it will scarcely be expected that I should be able to say much. The Newars, who, as I have elsewhere observed, are almost the sole artizans, appear to be acquainted with and exercise most of the handicraft occupations of their Behar neighbours. Of cloths, however, they fabricate only a very coarse kind, partly for home use and partly for exportation to the Tibets ; the cotton employed in which is the produce either of Noakote or of the Muddaise, by which last name they commonly distinguish the Company's territories. They work very well in iron, copper, brass, &c. and are particularly ingenious in carpentry, though it is remarkable that they never use a saw, dividing their wood, of whatever size, by chisel and mallet. They export to the southward some of their brazen utensils ; and their cutlery (as swords, daggers, &c.) is by no means contemptible. They have latterly manufactured some fire-arms, but not successfully. They gild exceedingly well, and among the bells they construct for the use of their temples and other religious purposes, some are of a considerable size ; one at Bhatgong in particular being five feet in diameter. The paper which they

they make from the bark of the Seidburrooa, or Kāghazi-pāt, has already been noticed. They distil spirits from rice, and other grains, and also prepare a fermented liquor from wheat, Munooa, rice, &c. which they call Jhāur; it is made somewhat in the manner of our malt-liquors, which it would appear to resemble, though I fancy, from the accounts I have received of it, it is rather more intoxicating; the Newar peasants consider it as much in the light of a necessary of life, as our hard-labouring people do porter.'

Colonel K. affords us this notice with regard to the literature and learning of the Nepaulians:

'Time did not admit of my attending much to the state of learning among these people, yet the little information that it was in my power to acquire on the subject disposes me to think that the pundits of Nepaul are not behind hand, in the branches of science usually cultivated by their fraternity, with those of any other Hindoo country whatever. Astronomy, or rather its degenerate offspring, and ordinary companion among superstitious nations, judicial astrology, appears to be their favourite study, and has so deeply, as well as undisguisedly, infected every rank among them, that a stranger might be tempted to conclude that here the horoscope and ephemeris determined in most cases the line both of civil and moral conduct, and that the people, in short, were universally directed by their soothsayers. In fine, it is extremely probable that there is no place in India where a search after ancient and valuable Sanscrit manuscripts in every department of Brahminical learning would be more successful than in the valley of Nepaul, and particularly at Bhatgong, which would seem to be the Benares of the Ghoorkhali territories. In support of this opinion I may observe, that I was credibly informed of a single private library in that city, containing upwards of fifteen thousand volumes.'

We next meet with a long account of the language, or rather languages, of Nepaul, accompanied by a vocabulary, and an engraving of several alphabets.

The distribution and division of the lands is a characteristic and important circumstance, which must not be omitted:

'The lands of Nepaul, under which denomination I comprehend not only those of Nepaul proper, and of Ghoorkha, but of such conquered districts as have been thoroughly settled, may be arranged under the following classes:

'First. Those constituting what may be termed crown-lands, or the Rajah's immediate estates. These are situated chiefly in the Ghoorkha territory, but there is hardly any division of the Goorkhali conquests, in which the Prince has not appropriated a greater or smaller share of the lands to himself. Some of these estates are cultivated by husbandmen, with whom he equally divides the produce; others are managed entirely by agents of his own, and tilled by the neighbouring husbandmen, who are obliged to dedicate a certain number of days in the year to this service; and others are farmed out. From those of the two first descriptions he draws almost all the supplies for the consumption of his kitchen and the other departments of his

his household; every jaghiredar at Khatmanda furnishing himself in the same manner from his jaghire (unless this happens to be too remotely situated) with so much of its produce in kind, as he may require for domestic expenditure, depending on the markets, whether at Khat-manda or elsewhere, only for such articles as his lands do not yield. This is the reason why the markets of this country appear to be but scantily supplied, when considered relatively to the number of inhabitants; for they may be said to be almost exclusively resorted to by the trading, manufacturing, and other classes of the people not in possession of lands.

Second. The Birtha, or Brhemoter lands, which are of two kinds, viz. the Koos-birtha, and the Soona-birtha. The former are rarely bestowed, excepting on Brahmins. The manner of investiture is solemn; the Rajah waters with his own hands a clod brought from the land to be given away, mixing it with some Koos (a species of holy grass,) and Teel (sesame), and, with certain other ceremonies occasionally performed by a priest, presents the whole to the Brahmin, who returns part of the clod to the earth from which it was taken, and carefully preserves the remainder; this gift is sometimes accompanied by a written patent, and sometimes by a Tambeh-putter, or title-deed, engraved on a plate of copper. Lands of this kind are rent-free, saleable, and hereditary; but are also forfeitable for certain crimes. Some titles to estates of this sort are derived from grants conferred by former princes, the predecessors of the Goorkhali dynasty, but which the present reigning family have confirmed, by affixing their red seal to the original patents, the proprietors paying in these cases a fine proportioned to the value of the land. It must here be observed, that though, strictly speaking, the sovereign has no claim on the proprietor of such lands for any thing more than his prayers, yet the latter occasionally considers it prudent to propitiate his prince by other more substantial means. This is particularly necessary on the accession of a new Rajah.

The Soona-birtha tenure is that by which certain Newars, and other natives of the different countries subjected by the Goorkhali, continue to hold their ancient possessions under the government of the conquerors. These lands, though rent-free, saleable, and hereditary, like the others, are not enjoyed altogether on terms equally easy; for besides that a considerable fine was exacted from the proprietors upon the first confirmation of their original titles, these must be renewed on similar terms under every succeeding prince.

Third. The Kohrya and Bari lands. The lands which come under this description, are such as are destitute of springs, and have no stream passing through them. Of this kind are the sides and summits of many, perhaps the greater part, of the mountains of this country, though certainly most of those which we passed were very well watered. A Bari is properly an enclosed fruit or kitchen garden, unsupplied with springs or running water, being otherwise deemed of the Kaith kind, and rateable accordingly. Kohrya land is often comprehended in jaghires, but is not productive to the jag-hiredar, as it requires considerable labour, and yields, after all, no very profitable grains. The principal are Muckhye (Indian corn),
Kodo

Kodo Murrova, some species of Ghya (a dry coarse rice), and Toori: they also raise in these situations some barley, wheat, cotton, Kagnos, or millet, Suma, and Phaphun. These articles are chiefly consumed by the husbandmen themselves, and others among the lower classes of the people. The cultivator pays the jaghiredar, or government, not according to the produce of his labour (which regularly would be the Buttye, or half), but a cess proportionate to the number of his ploughs or spades: widows are permitted to cultivate as much Kohrya land as they can, without being cessed at all. Considering the difficulty of bringing lands of this nature into cultivation, and the general scarcity of inhabitants throughout these mountainous regions, it is probable the government draws but little revenue from them.

'*Fourth.* The Kaith lands. The Kaith, or plantation lands, are of the first quality, being well watered by springs and rivulets, having a rich soil, and yielding, with moderate labour, all the superior kinds of grain; they are principally situated in the valleys, the lowest of which are, generally speaking, the most fertile; but they are not uncommon even in the higher lands, some of which are abundantly supplied with water. The superficial contents of a Kaith of a hundred Moorries, are equal to about four Biggahs, and two-thirds of a Biggah.'

As to the state of agriculture, it appears to be in its very infancy. The use of the plough is scarcely known among the Newars, owing to their extraordinary reverence for the bullock: but they have no scruples respecting buffaloes; and the plough, drawn (as we conclude) by the latter animals, has lately been introduced in the neighbourhood of Thankote.

Nepaul, properly so called, or the remarkable valley, the description of which we have already inserted, forms but the center of the dominions subject to the Nepaul government. The present race of sovereigns, who succeeded by conquest, are called Goorkhali; and the outline of their territories is thus described by Colonel Kirkpatrick:

'I shall now proceed to close this memoir with some account of the boundaries, extent, and several divisions of Nepaul, which, collectively considered, comprehends an immense tract of country, stretching from Serinugur to the banks of the Teesta. Doubtless, however, nothing more than a slight sketch on this head will be expected from me, since it will be remembered that till the late deputation to Nepaul, our knowledge concerning the dominions of the Goorkhali (by which appellation the successors of Purthi Nerain are usually distinguished) scarcely extended beyond the Cheerighati ridge of hills, and that my inquiries towards the improvements of this part of Asiatic geography must necessarily, for reasons already sufficiently insisted on, have been extremely circumscribed. Such, however, as these inquiries were, I shall here communicate their result, lamenting only that I am unable to furnish any satisfactory information relative to the natural history, produce, or population of a region which, owing to its situa-
tion

tion with regard to Tibet, appears highly interesting to us in a commercial view. We have hitherto surveyed little more than the valley of Nepaul itself. Let us now run our eye, however superficially, along its dependencies, beginning with those lying to the eastward.

In this direction, then, the possessions of the Goorkhali are bounded by those of the Dewa Durmah, or Deb Rajah (to which we have exclusively, though improperly, appropriated the appellation of Bhoot or Bhootan), from which they are separated by the river Teesta. To the south-east they touch our districts of Betwee, Hazary, Rungamutty, and Cooch-behar, and to the north-east are divided from Tibet by the Kuchar, or Alpine ridge in which the passes of Phullák and Kooti are situated. The Nepaul frontier towards the Teesta is illustrated by the town and district of Sookhim, by the Morung principally in the south-east quarter, while the towns of Dhoalka and Lastie mark its limits on the north-east side; the former standing on the Kuchar to the west of Phullák, and the latter immediately below Kooti. The country lying between Khat-manda and the borders just described is, with the exception of the Morung and other Turrye districts adjoining to it, entirely mountainous, giving rise or passage to several rapid streams, the most considerable of which are the Soan-Kousi, the Bhootia-Kousi, the Tambeh-Kousi, the Dhoodh-Kousi, the Arun, and the Teesta, which last springs from mount Chownrigolah, a branch or continuation of the snowy Phunijoong, and situated about one journey E.S.E. of it. This mountainous tract is inhabited by various uncivilized nations, differing considerably from each other in language and manners, but materially in point of religion. The principal of these tribes are the Kerrautes, the Hawoos, and the Limboos or Limboosas, whom the Nepaul government finds it no easy matter to keep in order, while it derives little or no advantage from them in any respect. They are all Hindoos, but of the meanest cast; Bheem Sein is the favourite divinity of the Limboos; and appears indeed to be of great consideration among the mountaineers in general. These rude people subsist chiefly on fish, and wild fruits, though they also cultivate some species of grain; the hills occupied by the Hawoos or Hyoos producing Kagnoo, those of the Kerrautes several sorts of Ghya; and the Limboo mountains, (which are situated close to Himma-leh, and much exposed to falls of snow) yielding a species of rice called Ták-máro, which, it is not improbable, may be found to answer in the soil and climate of England.

To the southward, the Nepaul territories are bounded by certain contiguous Purgunnahs of Durbungah, Tirhoot, and Chemparun; the towns which principally illustrate this frontier being Ummirpore, Janickpore, Bareh, and Persa, or Goolpussra. To the south-west lies Bulrampore of Goruckpore, adjoining to which is the tributary principality of Bootoul, or Bootwal; to the westward, the Nepaul borders, as they incline northerly, touch on various parts of Oude: and to the north north-west are divided from Pillibeat, Rampoor, Koshipore, Rodurpoor, and other districts of Rohilcund by the Kemaon and Almorah hills, which are among the acquisitions of Behadur Shah. In the north-west quarter they are bounded by the

dominions of the Rajahs of Serinugur and Siremon, and by Lud-dakh, Taklakhar, and Moostang of Tibet, all of them situated beyond the snowy ridge known by the general name of Himma-leh, but bearing different appellations throughout its immense extent. To the northward of this wide expanse of rugged but interesting territory lie Kheeroo, Joongah, and Manouphaut, belonging to the Lehasa dominions, but at present possessed in fact by the Chinese.

‘ It will be seen by running the eye over Major Rennell’s map, and describing on it, with the aid of the preceding detail, the general outline of the Nepaul territories, that while they include between their east and west limits no less a space than twelve geographical degrees, they are, on the other hand, in point of breadth, of no very considerable extent, no where extending two degrees in horizontal measurement from north to south, and for the most part exhibiting a slip of even less than a degree.

‘ The track lying between Nepaul and Serinugur, and in a direction from S.W. to N.W. of the former, comprehends the subjugated countries of the Chowbeisia (or twenty-four) and the Bansai (or twenty-two) Rajahs, together with the more recent conquest of Dhôtee, Kemaoon, and Gherwâl, of which last Serinugur is the capital. Their exact position I am unable to determine, and therefore have not thought it worth while to enlarge the accompanying map, merely for the purpose of laying down places regarding which my information was so imperfect. For the same reason I have not stretched its limits either to the northward or eastward so far as I might have done, had I been sufficiently satisfied with the materials I have collected respecting the geography of those quarters. It may not be amiss, however, to insert in this place the names of the Chowbeisia, or twenty-four Raaj or principalities constituting the Nepaul dominions immediately west of Goorkha, as, joined with some account of the routes which cross them in various directions, they may, in a certain degree, assist future inquiries, and in the mean time serve to convey a general idea of a country at present almost totally unknown; with the same view I shall also endeavour to throw some faint light on the geography of the northern and eastern parts, by presenting similar sketches of the roads leading from Nepaul proper to Joongah, Kooti, Beijapoor, &c. With respect to the Bansai, or twenty-two Raaj, all of which are situated still farther to the westward (lying between the Chowbeisia and Dhôtee) I have not been able to procure an accurate list of them. The whole of these forty-six petty states were formerly in a certain degree tributary to the Jumlah Rajah; who annually received from one, as a token of homage and subjection, a pair of slippers, from another, fish, &c. The princes at the head of them are, without exception, I understand, of the Rajepoot tribe.’

We have now communicated, as far as the materials presented to us and our limits would admit, an idea of this almost unknown country, and of the contents of the work with which Colonel Kirkpatrick has favoured us. We have presented more than an usual proportion of extracts, for several reasons: be-

cause we conceived that they would be very generally interesting ; because they exhibited the important information which the author has given us in its true colours ; because it would not have been easy, in our own language, to have conveyed the same information in less compass, while the abstract would have been altogether defective in affording a knowledge of the author's manner and style ; and, because the Colonel's bookseller, from his usual desire to provide for the taste of the lovers of fine paper and print, has rendered the volume so expensive that a great proportion of the most useful class of readers must be debarred from possessing it, however valuable is the knowledge which it imparts. We own that this latter consideration has not operated feebly in inducing us to insert the most curious passages of the memoir : because, while we certainly render service to the reading-parties concerned, we as certainly do no harm to the selling-parties ; since the persons who buy books for the beauty of paper and print will most undoubtedly in no instance be prevented from purchasing a fine work, by the extracts of it which they may have it in their power to read in a Review.

A description of Nepaul is highly interesting on a double account : first, in a political point of view, since that country borders on the British dominions, and hence, by its commercial means or hostile faculties, is liable to be advantageous or detrimental to British affairs ; — and, secondly, it is highly interesting to literature and philosophy by adding to our knowledge of the globe and its inhabitants, by bringing us acquainted with a nation of Hindoos who have never been subject to any but a Hindoo government, and who have in a great measure been excluded from intercourse with any other people than Hindoos. Accordingly, we have, in the Nepaulians, an opportunity of contemplating the Hindoo character and civilization, in what may be regarded as nearly its primitive state ; and we see in them, probably, under slight modifications, what was seen in Hindoostan in the ages which preceded the foreign conquests which that country has undergone. The literature of the Nepaulians, also, if the number of books be a proof, would appear to be as high (and we have the additional testimony of Colonel Kirkpatrick that it is actually as high) as literature is in any part of Hindoostan ; and this is an important circumstance ; since materials of no trifling value will probably be found in Nepaul, for settling controversies respecting the antient state of civilization, of the arts, and of learning, in India.

Another publication from the pen of this very intelligent soldier, containing a selection of letters from the late Tippoo Sultan, will occupy our attention in our next Number.

ART. II. *Descriptive Travels in the Southern and Eastern Parts of Spain and the Balearic Isles, in the Year 1809.* By Sir John Carr, K. C. 4to. pp. 394. 2s. 2s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

WHILE our brave warriors are shedding their blood in defence of Spain, our writing-tourists are very liberal in spilling ink for the purpose of informing us what is the kind of country, and what are the sort of people, for which these heroes are fighting. We lately took notice of a quarto volume of Spanish travels, commenced in the year 1809 *; and we are now called by a worthy Knight to attend him on an excursion which was begun in the same year, and which in a considerable degree refers to the same portion of the peninsula that we so recently explored in company with Mr. Jacob. If by the multitude of counsellors we obtain safety, so by the multitude of reporters we may be led to truth; and thus far a comparison of independent witnesses concerning the facts in question may be desirable: but the fear is that we shall be *over-done*; and that, in the present state of tip-toe curiosity, we shall find our book-making tourists too bountiful in their contributions.

Some persons travel merely for the purpose of writing, and contrive to obtain from the bookseller a sum which will amply cover all the expences of their journey; and Sir John Carr has been so long in the habit of turning his excursions to a profitable issue, that we may be allowed to suppose that he was induced to undertake his Spanish rambles on account of the high interest which every thing relative to the peninsula excites at the present moment. We are ready, indeed, to admit that in this respect his policy is commendable: but, as Mr. Jacob had the start in publication, it is rather unfortunate for Sir John that, with reference to the districts which they survey in common, his predecessor is more full, more minute, more descriptive, and we should think, for the chief part, more accurate. Some trifling things are omitted by Mr. Jacob, which are mentioned by the present tourist: but numerous objects are specified by the former which are altogether passed over by the Knight. In a few places, the accounts of these rival authors differ; thus, for instance, the latter states the population of Malaga in 1804 at 80,000, and the number of those who were carried off by the plague that raged there in that year, at from 18 to 20,000: but the former, who seems to have been more minute in his inquiries, gives the population of Malaga in 1804 at 75,000, and represents the exact number destroyed by the

* See our Number for May last, p. 18.

plaguè to have been 21,637. It is necessary only to compare the table of contents in the two volumes, or the chapters of the one with the letters of the other, as far as they respect the same places, to perceive that Mr. Jacob has been the most vigilant collector. The reader must remember, however, that Sir John's travels are more ample in their range than those of Mr. Jacob; and that, among other objects, they conduct us to the Balearic isles, the scenery and society of which are by no means stale objects of description. As the Knight has himself explained the nature of what he purposes to offer, and what he means to with-hold, we regard it as the surest way of doing him justice to allow him to speak his own prologue:

‘The principal character of the work is intended to be descriptive, particularly of scenery and manners: if I am occasionally minute, it is only for the sake of illustration. A worthy Spanish writer says

“Quantos payzes, tantos costumbres.”

As many countries, so many customs.

At the same time, I have not altogether omitted such recent political events as are connected with my subject, or which occurred under my own observation. The perfidious and cruel irruption of the French into Spain, and many events which have occurred in consequence, have furnished much new matter since the publication of most other Spanish Tours; and of the Balearic Isles, I have never met with any descriptive accounts. To these countries the following pages are confined; but my Tour extended much farther in the Mediterranean. In Sardinia I found a country extremely interesting, and, I believe, but little known. It is now too the last sanctuary of an intrepid and unblemished prince, it affords some field for the commercial enterprize of Englishmen, its harbour has been eulogized by the immortal Nelson, and it is growing up into comparative importance amongst the islands of the Mediterranean. The removal of the court of Naples to Sicily, the settlement of so many of our countrymen there, and particularly the abortive attempts of the French to extend their usurpation over it, have added some charms of novelty to the familiar attractions of that favoured island. Even Malta, with its well known batteries and barrenness, I found to have acquired new importance from the war. In short, every inch of ground which yet remains free from French contamination cannot but be dear and interesting to Englishmen.

‘Although in passing through so many countries, I had generally the good fortune of being received with distinguished attention, and immediately conducted to the objects I was pursuing, yet I have not been exempt from the difficulties which environ many travellers; it therefore forms another department of my endeavours to facilitate the progress of those who may follow me, by noticing the distance, costs, modes of, and other matters incident to, travelling.

‘Treated as I was with kindness and even confidence in many distinguished families, it is to be expected that several private anecdotes came to my knowledge, which would illustrate manners, and even events,

events, and certainly contribute to the entertainment of the reader. But as the publication of them might embarrass those with whom they originated, and distress those to whom they apply, I have cautiously abstained from admitting them here. My views are general, not personal; and whatever may be the opinion of the merits of my work, I shall at least have the satisfaction of knowing, that neither in the present, nor in any other instance, in which I have ventured before the public, have I offered any violation to private feelings or public morals.'

The gratitude of a traveller, who has been well received, cannot be better expressed than by the sort of discretion which Sir John Carr has practised; for, though gossips (male and female) may be *on the look-out* for what ought not to be told, a point of honour should often restrain the lip or the pen from relating all that we may have heard or seen. It may be collected, also, from the above extract, that we have here only a portion of the author's Mediterranean rambles; and that Sardinia and Malta may furnish matter for a subsequent volume. Be this as it may, we hasten to state, in reference to that which is now before us, that Sir John embarked at Falmouth on the 9th of July 1809, and on the 18th landed at Cadiz; that, having explored this city, he proceeded to Xeres, Seville, Malaga, Granada, Guadix, Lorca, Tutana, Carthagena, Lebrilla, Murcia, Orihuela, Alicant, Roda, Valencia, Puzol, Murviedro, Nulez, Oropesa, Benicarlo, Tortosa, Tarragona, and the celebrated monasteries of Montserrat; and that, after having amused himself on the romantic elevations of the latter, he returned to Tarragona, and there embarked for Majorca, the largest of the Balearic isles. We exhibit this outline of the route, that the reader, by turning to the map, may at once perceive the extent of Sir John's rambles, and see how far he treads the same ground which Mr. Jacob had occupied before him.

Scarcely has Sir John Carr set his foot on the peninsula, and glanced at the state of society in Cadiz, when, as a gallant knight, he adverts to the manners of the Spanish ladies; who do not appear now to labour under those cruel restraints which some have pitied and others have ridiculed:

'When a stranger contemplates the massy bars by which the windows of all the houses here, not lately erected, are barricadoed, he cannot help entering into reflections not very favourable to the morals of the Spanish ladies. Time, without strengthening the virtue of the women, has conveniently enough reduced the jealousy of the men so low, that any one acquainted only with the present manners of Spain might suppose, though ridiculously enough, that those very bars had been constructed for the sole purpose of preventing overheated and romantic lovers from the hazard of injury, by attempting to enter

the window of their mistresses, when they can have access to them with perfect safety through the door whenever they please. Thanks to the accession of the House of Bourbon for this important change. The insensibility of that man must be great indeed, who cannot find a *querida*, or one to whom he is permitted to devote all his soul, amongst either the married or the unmarried; and destitute of every attraction must that woman be, who does not meet with a *cortija* or lover, or rather her impassioned slave, amongst the men. In carrying on an intrigue, the Spanish ladies are singularly dexterous. Wrapped up in the masquerade of fable and parable, they carry on an amorous conversation with their admirers in public, without the fear of detection. In the language of the fingers they are also very expert; with one hand they are enabled to form an alphabet.*

Mr. Jacob speaks of the Tertulia of the Countess Villamarique, at Seville, as a gaming-house, where most of the company meet for play, but among whom some intelligent persons might be found who enjoy conversation. Sir John, however, gives rather a different picture of the tertulias of Seville; 'at which,' he says, 'obscene conversation with the women, and iced water, formed the principal mental and animal entertainments.'

In the chapters allotted to the delineation of the city of Cadiz, the account of the bull-fight at Puerta de Santa Maria, in its vicinity, is very minute; and the interest taken in this cruel diversion by the Spanish ladies is distinctly noticed. Since these exhibitions are even more a feature of the Spanish character than our boxing-matches are of the British, a tourist is justified in giving them a place in his book: but we expected a different reflection on the whole from that with which the account here concludes. After having informed us that the residue of the money collected from the spectators at these bull-fights, when the expences are paid, is given to charitable uses, the Knight adds; 'And thus is even cruelty made ministerial to humanity and civilization!' In this remark, a little dry irony is meant to be couched: but a more pointed condemnation of this barbarous sport, and a direct exposure of that self-delusion which human beings practise on themselves by endeavouring to neutralize vice through an admixture of some easy virtue, would have been more satisfactory to our old-fashioned feelings.

With a due regard to the wants of future travellers, Sir John does not omit to specify at every stage the sort of accommodation that he found; and he also explains the different

* At Malaga, we hear not only of the beauty but the freedom of manners of the women, and are given to understand that female penance is very frequent. *Rev.*

kinds of inns which occur on the roads and in towns. As soon as he had commenced his Spanish rambles, and proceeded to Xeres, he was conducted by the calesero, or the person who drove his calesa, or carriage in which he travelled, 'to a fonda, or inn, where, after some refreshment, which only appetite rendered palatable, he went to bed, or rather to a depôt of fleas.' He then adds:

'To give the reader a little idea of the different species of inns in Spain, I beg to inform him, that a fonda is the principal inn in a town, where he may expect to find food (though most likely to be execrably bad) and wine provided. A posada is another and inferior inn in a town, where lodging only is found, and if the traveller wishes to eat, he must either bring, or send out into the town and buy, what he wishes. A venta is a solitary house situated on the roads, in which it is seldom that any thing more than eggs and bad wine can be procured.'

For the most part, the inns in the peninsula are far from comfortable: but in one place Sir John mentions his having met with 'that travelling wonder in Spain, a clean table-cloth.'

Owing to the mode of travelling, and to the author's practice of taking sketches of the most striking picturesque scenery, much time could not be obtained for minute observation: hence his notices are generally short; and the whole journey from Cadiz to Tarragona, including a trip to Gibraltar and Algeziras, furnishes only 330 pages of matter. Having given an account of the vinous produce of Xeres, in our report of Mr. Jacob's travels, we shall here insert Sir John Carr's statement of the produce of the vineyards in the district of Malaga:

'It is said that Malaga is more opulent in wines than any other city in Spain, and that there are no less than seven thousand vineyards in its district, bearing no fewer than thirty-four different sorts of grapes. At the house of the American consul, we tasted various sorts of Malaga wines, amongst which I remember the guinda, enriched by the buds of the cherry-tree, which was very delicious. The wine usually exported to England from this place, and called is after its name, is well known. Of this the average annual quantity between four and five hundred thousand quintals (Cwts.). The raisins made from grapes gathered in the middle of the year are also well known for their excellence. The figs too are truly delicious.'

Why is not some of the *guinda* brought to this country, as well as all the variety which the Malaga-grapes produce?

The Moorish palace, called Alhambra, near Granada, is not noticed in these chapters with any marked eulogy, but is cursorily passed over as 'a structure more calculated to excite than to gratify curiosity.' Sir John, however, commits an error when, adverting to the date of the guard-gate, he informs the

reader that 'it was built in the year of the Hegira 749, corresponding with A.D. 1338;'—he should have said A.D. 1371.

According to Mr. Jacob, the terrors of the Inquisition have considerably abated in late years; but the Knight gives a different report:

'It is in vain to say that the times are enlightened, and that those who belong to the holy office are too liberal to exercise its powers but with lenity. The oppressions practised, in this very Inquisition, in 1724, upon Isaac Martin, an Englishman, may be exercised again; and were, although with some variance, as I have before mentioned, lately practised upon one of the best and wisest men in Spain, the patriotic Jovellanos.

'I was assured on good authority, that several unhappy persons were, when I was in Granada, confined in the dungeons of this very building, the silence and gloom of which were truly horrible. There had been lately an *auto da fé*, or solemn act of faith, exhibited here, in the excommunication of a layman for pretending to be a monk.'

From the descriptive parts of this work, we must not omit to extract the account of the beautiful valley of Valencia:

'As I was anxious to contemplate the fairy land that surrounds this city, in a circumference of between seventy and eighty miles, I took the earliest opportunity of ascending the tower of the cathedral, which has the reputation of covering the site of a building, that in different eras underwent the extraordinary vicissitudes of having been once a Pagan temple, thrice a place of Christian worship, and twice a Mahometan mosque,

'From this elevation, the city appears to be seated in an almost interminable garden of unfading verdure, protected on three sides by a chain of distant mountains, and open to the ocean on the east. In one view, I beheld not less than two hundred hamlets, scattered amidst vineyards, woods of olive, white mulberry, almond, carob, fig-trees, and silver poplars, oranges, and citron-groves, fields of various hues, green with the young rice, red with tomatas, and yellow with melons, divided by stately aloes, and pomegranates, displaying the rich crimson of their bell blossoms, and embellished by the romantic appearance of the Asiatic palm. The animating gaiety of beautiful country-houses, and white cottages, half concealed in foliage, was relieved by the pensive appearance of cross-crowned convents, amid the gloom of their cypresses. Innumerable channels of water ran shining through this paradise, the roads were covered with peasants, carts, and cattle in active motion, and the whole was illuminated by a brilliant sun, beaming through a sky of cloudless azure. Such a combination of beauty and prodigal luxuriance, nature and art had never before presented to me. It seemed enchantment all; to describe it is impossible. Here, under a climate, almost always beneficent, December wears the dress and attractions of May, and the seasons are known only by the variety of their delicious offerings of blossoms, fruits, and flowers, to banquet and ravish the senses.'

The

The popularity of the English in Spain was evident in every place to which the traveller came. At a dinner in Valencia, a lady who presided endeavoured to compliment her guests by giving a toast, as she thought, in the true English manner: but it is evident that she did not distinguish between a *toast* and a *prayer*. On some particular wine being admired, she stood up, 'and with great solemnity said, "I give the Almighty God, and may he continue to bestow upon us good wine." All the company, particularly some priests, filled bumpers to the sentiment, which they drank with great devotional fervour. Singular, (observes the author) and even offensive to some of my readers, as such a mixture of religion and conviviality may appear, I am satisfied that the lady only intended to please the English present, and display her piety at the same time.'

The last town mentioned on the Spanish coast is the unfortunate Tarragona, the population of which is said to have been 10,000. Sir John describes its antiquities rather than its recent state :

' This city, from the ramparts of which there is a beautiful prospect of the sea, of the Campo de Tarragona, and the extensive vineyards which supply Reus with its wine and brandy, is the capital of the province, reputed to be the most ancient in Spain, and to have been fortified by Scipio against the Carthaginians : it is also the next episcopal town to Rome, from which, if the Pope were expelled, the Tarragonese would claim his residence amongst them, though the city of Toledo disputes this honour. A thousand pens have been engaged, and the produce of many paper-mills expended, in this disputation, of so little importance to an Englishman.

' A few Punic and numerous Roman antiquities still remain ; amongst the latter are to be seen the house of the Roman proconsul, now forming part of the archbishop's palace, on the walls of which there are several inscriptions, the portal of a temple, a circus, and amphitheatre ; and also a very long modern aqueduct, built by the late archbishop.

' The cathedral is a vast Gothic pile, gloomy without, but elegant within, particularly the chapel of Santa Tecla, the tutelar saint, which is nearly entirely composed of jasper and the most beautiful marbles of Catalonia. The font, which was formerly a bath used by one of the Roman emperors, is of marble, and extremely simple. The organ is large and finely toned. In the cloisters are numerous Roman cornices, and inscriptions let into the wall.'

Sir J. Carr's visit to the monks of Montserrat was very amusing, and we must not altogether omit the narrative of it. This mountain has so often been described as one of the most singular and picturesque elevations on the face of the globe, that every traveller must in course pay his respects to it, if he can ; and it is now moreover made interesting as the spot, fortified by

by nature, to which the Junta of Tarragona (if the report of the newspapers be true) have fled for refuge since the storming of that city by the French. We may therefore be more than pardoned for inserting Sir John's account of this *sierra*, inhabited by monks :

‘ From Esparaguera, we proceeded about a mile and a half to a village near the base of Monserrat where we exchanged our mules for asses, leaving the former behind until our return. After slowly ascending this stupendous mountain, for about two hours and a half, over a badly paved road, winding close to the brink of the most frightful precipices, the superb prospect below expanding at every step, we made a gentle descent, and saw before us the celebrated monastery of the mountain, a vast pile of brick resembling in form and size the extensive cotton-mills at Lanark in Glasgow, an appearance not very picturesque, nor correspondent with the romantic scenery surrounding and impending over it. After passing a fountain well supplied with water, we entered the yard, beholding with amazement an enormous rock, nearly suspended over one side of the convent, from which evidently a vast fragment had been shattered. We halted at the gateway between two colossal figures of saints, mounted upon pedestals, where we were kindly received by one of the brethren, all of whom belong to the order of St. Benedict, and conducted through the cloisters, which are said to be one thousand years old, to the apartment of one of the canonicos, where we were regaled with chocolate and cakes, and soon after introduced to the superior, who occupied a handsome suite of apartments, and by whom we were very politely received. After this we were shewn to the room allotted for us, containing two beds, where, owing to the cold blasts blowing from the Pyrennees in the neighbourhood, we were glad to get a good cop of charcoal. This fuel is powdered and called carbonilla, and is very unwholesome. A piece of lemon is sometimes thrown into the fire, from a belief that it corrects the noxious effect of the carbonilla.

‘ Just as we were sitting down to a good supper, the superior sent us a present of a very large bottle of most excellent black wine; when this was gone we paid for more, as we did for every thing else. The kitchen is very ancient, spacious, and sable, and a tolerable rival of that of Christ's Church, Oxford, erected by the bounty of Cardinal Wolsey. A stream of water runs through the middle of one of its divisions, in which plates and knives are expeditiously cleaned, and offal immediately carried away.

‘ Every room kept for strangers was crowded, owing to the number of emigrants from Barcelona, which is distant about eight leagues. Two or three families slept in the next room to ours, and appeared to suffer but little from their exile; for they were reciting from dramas, singing, and dancing the greater part of the night.

‘ The morning was beautiful, and we arose with the sun, which gradually unfolded, under various tints, the extensive and magnificent scene, which lay expanded before us, and above which we were so much exalted, that the shadow of the mountains below alone distinguished them from the valleys at their base.

After

'After a breakfast of some excellent bread and chocolate, we walked forth to look about us, and were again struck with the wonderful cones, which seemed all around us to penetrate the sky with their tops. These cones, which as well as every other part of the rock, are composed of calcareous stone called pudding-stone, are said, from their appearance of having been sawn asunder, to give its name to the mountain, the word *serra* signifying a saw. All of them are smooth; some are stupendous in height, and, with but little assistance from imagination, resemble the form of recumbent lions, squatting monks, the fronts and backs of females and Egyptian idols. It is probable that these cones were once covered with vegetable mould, which has been carried away in the course of ages by the rains, which in Spain are very heavy, and are now left bare like so many vertebrae.'

We shall now attend the author in his short voyage on the Mediterranean from Tarragona to Palma, the capital of Majorca, in the Palma packet. This part of the excursion was a source of much amusement; and the tourist speaks in flattering terms both of the scenery and the inhabitants of the island. He was much captivated as he approached Palma, with its noble cathedral, public buildings, bastions, and the lofty mountains behind, which presented a rich and elegant spectacle. He found the people hospitable; and he gives such a representation of the cheapness of living, and even of good living, that many will wish that they could transport themselves and their effects to this fortunate island:

'The markets are abundantly supplied with every necessary, and what in England would be called every luxury. Fish, fowls, game, and fruits are in great profusion. So cheap is living in this happy island, that a married couple may keep an elegant house in the country, with olive-grounds, gardens, orange-groves, and vineyards, a plentiful table, drink the most delicious wines of the island, keep a carriage and a pair of mules, a suitable number of servants, and educate a family of children, in a refined manner, and associate with the best society, upon five hundred a year.

'The Exchange is a very curious Gothic edifice, containing a magnificent hall, which, owing to the merchants being more disposed to assemble in the open air, than under cover, is now much neglected, and is at present a depôt for corn. Towards the sea, the principal street is broad, and many of the houses are very large and magnificent.

'The rent of a tolerably good house is about seventy dollars a year; formerly upon an assignment of one, a fine was paid to the king, but this is now done away. There are about seven thousand houses in Palma. The population of the city is averaged at thirty-two thousand; that of the whole island, which is fifty leagues round, at eighty-seven thousand. This account varies from the enumeration given by other travellers, but I was repeatedly assured that it was correct.'

During a ride to the village of Alfabia, Sir John had an opportunity of seeing the richness of the country, and his description of it is thus given :

' We noticed the caper, which in various parts of this island grows wild, in considerable quantities, and forms a lucrative subject of exportation to the individual who is principally engaged in it. In no part of England have I seen more agricultural neatness and industry. All the stone fences, dividing one field from another, were kept in the highest order, as were the walls which embanked the rising grounds. In the immense woods of olives, by which we passed, I noticed some of the most venerable olive-trees I had yet seen ; our intelligent companion told us, that there was no doubt of some of them being between four and five hundred years old, as appeared by the title-deeds and register of some of the estates ; indeed several were perfect skeletons, and rested upon bare roots rudely resembling tripods. We partook of a noble dinner at Alfabia, distant from Palma about three hours, the country-house of Signor Zaffortesa, than which it would be difficult to conceive any spot under heaven more beautiful or tranquil. The riches of this gentleman are very great. Upon the marriage of his brother, he presented him with three hundred thousand dollars, and two coaches filled with silver plate. Behind the house, which was spacious, were orchards of mulberry and almond-trees, gardens abounding with the finest vegetables, fruits, orange and citron-groves, a long and exquisite treillage of the most luscious vines, with numerous jets-d'eau playing on each side between every arch, whilst the air was perfumed with the fragrance of lavender and thyme growing wild, the whole secured on all sides by lofty and picturesque mountains covered nearly to their craggy summits with olives. The grounds were supplied with water from a spacious tank, round the edges of which the cenlentrillo, a plant from which capillaire is made, grew, and which as we were informed, was a proof of the purity of the water ; and I also noticed large myrtle-trees bearing a small fruit of a dark blue colour, which when ripe is eaten. In the chapel belonging to the house, we were shewn the state chair of the ancient kings of Majorca ; at dinner we were regaled with several delicious wines, the production of the island, the best of which, amongst the white wines, are called Moller, Malvasia, Giro, Montona, Pampol, and Muscadell ; amongst the red, Binisalem, Banubufar Inca, and Son Berga. I noticed two or three hawks hovering over the ground, but the island is said to be free from venomous animals.'

From Majorca, the traveller passed to Minorca, the population of which is stated at 36,000. With a short account of that island, and particularly of Mahon, the volume concludes ; Ivica and the lesser isles, called the Petyuse islands, apparently not having been visited. In Majorca, the inhabitants seem to take little interest in the political commotions of the peninsula ; and both the tourists whom we have mentioned in this
 article

article agree in opinion that Spanish patriotism consists rather in a zeal for defending the town or district to which an individual belongs, than in an ardent concern for the independence and prosperity of the country at large.

Frequent use was made of the pencil, but few plates were prepared from Sir John's sketch-book to embellish this volume. It contains, however, a handsome view of the city of Granada, fronting the title, and in the body of the work are plates representing Cadiz — Valencia — the Hermitage of Santa Anna, at Montserrat* — a villa in Majorca, called Granga — and Mahon, in Minorca.

The Appendix includes the translation of a Cancion of Francisco de Roida, on the ruins of the antient Italica : but we cannot highly compliment Sir John Carr on this specimen of his poetic talents.

Occasionally, the language of this volume is objectionable. At p. 23, we read, 'oil is substituted for butter. . It is imported from Ireland ;' that is, the oil.—At p. 127. we are told of 'the propinquity of the rock (Gibraltar) to those two quarters of the world,' Africa and Europe, as if Gibraltar was in neither.—At p. 229. 'One of them was peculiarly beautiful, and one might have thought,' &c.—p. 356. 'the gates were *being* shut;'—p. 144. 'some fields of cotton, *monadelphia polyandria*,' as if this was the botanical name of cotton, instead of its *class* ;—p. 188. 'a *mighty* docile animal,' &c. &c.; and the whole is very incorrectly printed in regard to punctuation.

ART. III. *A plain Statement of some of the most important Principles of Religion*, as a Preservative against Infidelity, Enthusiasm, and Immorality. By the Rev. Thomas Watson. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

IF religion be "a reasonable service," its substance as well as its evidences must be elucidated by rational inquiry. The maintenance of a contrary position would involve the greatest absurdities. Our opinion has been often given on this subject; and the present occasion requires us to repeat that, in order to encounter Infidelity on the one hand, and Enthusiasm on the

* The excentric Philip Thicknesse, in his "Year's Journey through France and part of Spain," (1778.) has given a most striking engraving of the romantic mountain of Montserrat; and, as the accuracy of his delineation has been called in question, we wish that Sir John Carr, instead of merely exhibiting one of the thirteen chapels or hermitages which are placed in different spots on this *sierra*, had presented a view of the whole mountain.

other, with complete success, plain and intelligible views of religion must be presented : we need not add that this is the most effectual method of making it uniformly productive of virtue. A childish apprehension is entertained by some persons, that Faith is weakened by being simplified ; the fact, however, is the reverse. What is the natural consequence of this simplification, but the diminution of the number of Infidels and Enthusiasts ? If creeds consisted of fewer articles, more people would be found to believe them ; and if the heads of the multitude were less bewildered by metaphysical tenets, they would be less exposed to the flights and aberrations of enthusiasm. It is beyond all dispute that a religious belief which obtains the full accordance of the mind must be strongly operative on the heart ; and it is thus that we associate or rather identify religion with morality. Do preachers from the pulpit, and writers from the press, complain that religion is despised in this quarter, and abused in that ?—let them apply the only remedy for this double evil ; and not by *over-dosing* turn the stomachs of some and the heads of others.

We advise the adoption of Mr. Watson's manner of explaining and enforcing religious doctrine ; and we are persuaded that, if it were generally practised, extensive benefit would ensue. His object is to prove, which he effects in the completest manner, that Christianity is a rational system ; he explains the great principles of natural religion, to the conviction of every intelligent mind ; he exposes with effect the misapprehensions of some modern enthusiasts ; and he endeavours to defeat that conspiracy against the moral duties of the Gospel, which, as he observes, has in all ages existed, because men have wished to make religion consist of something different from a good life. The insanity of the attempt has been often ridiculed : but those who love their sins not less than they love their souls are desperately enamoured of this spiritual quackery. These professing Christians will not relish Mr. Watson's 'plain statement,' because it is full of argument,—of convincing argument,—that their views of the Gospel are *toto cælo* erroneous. This writer, who is not less candid than forcible, laments that he is obliged to militate against some disputed and fashionable tenets : but he has prepared his mind for the obloquy to which he will be exposed ; and therefore he speaks with freedom of certain principles and professions, which in his judgment, as in ours, 'do more harm to real religion than the most determined infidelity ; for religion is disgraced by the absurdity of the principles and practices of the enthusiast, and exposed to shame by the inconsistencies and irregularities of the impostor and hypocrite, who follow in the train.'

frain.'—We strongly recommend the little volume now before us as an excellent addition to the author's "Popular Evidences," &c. of which we gave an account in Vol. liv. N.S. p. 380., and we consider it to be our duty to report it as one of those useful publications which ought to be extensively circulated.

The work is divided into seven chapters; in the first of which, Mr. Watson exhibits the most striking proofs of the existence, power, wisdom, eternity, omnipresence, unity, spirituality, goodness, and justice of God. We should gladly extract several passages for the gratification of our readers from this chapter: but, as we must leave room for others which subsequently occur, one specimen of the clear reasoning of the author must suffice. It obviates an objection often made to the justice of God:

* We find justice absolutely necessary for the government of the world; and we see that the Divine Governor acts generally upon this principle, in the whole of His administration. We see His justice in making wickedness, in many cases, its own punishment. There is scarcely any act of wickedness but what is followed up by some immediate punishment. The situation of mankind does not permit, that the present state should be a system of the complete moral government of God. In fact, it could not be accomplished, whilst we are in this imperfect and mixed state. But we see sufficient to show us what is the principle of God's government. Every vice produces less or more, even here, some kind of punishment. Habitual intemperance is followed up by disease, by an impairment of faculties, by a weakened memory and reason, by a reduced fortune, and very often by contempt. And nothing can render a man more contemptible than sensual indulgencies carried to an excessive length. Anger preys generally upon its own bowels, and tears and rends the weak frame: envy corrodes the heart: malice distresses the man in its pursuit, and not unfrequently is checked or corrected by some equivalent return. Avarice is punished by shutting up the heart, and preventing men from the enjoyment of what they possess. The miser is condemned to watch over his money, but not for his own benefit, but for the benefit of others; and he is as effectually debarred by the narrowness of his mind, from the rational enjoyment of it, as if it were in the possession of his greatest enemy. Every vice takes away also from enjoyment; and declares in the strongest language, that here is neither joy nor peace to the wicked. In this constitution of our nature, we see the wisdom and justice of the divine administration clearly manifested, to tell us, that God is just and righteous in all His ways.

* It can be no objection to the justice of God, that virtue is not completely rewarded, or vice fully punished in this world. The reasons for this imperfection are obvious. Vice could not be completely punished here without involving the innocent with the guilty. A wicked father could not be effectually punished without causing his innocent offspring to suffer. In the present state, the good and the

the bad, the righteous and the wicked are so closely interwoven, that the greatest injustice would be committed, were vice to meet with its final punishment in the present state. But we see sufficient to convince us of the justice of God, and the full display of it must be in the eternal world, where there will be a final and everlasting separation between the righteous and the wicked. The same reasons may be assigned for virtue not being fully rewarded in this life. There are sufficient indications of virtue's final recompence to support the diligence and hopes of good men, in the faithful discharge of their duty ; and their great reward must be deferred to the future life.

'Virtue here is followed up with great benefits. Temperance strengthens our body ; and increases or preserves our health. Justice begets satisfaction, confidence, and respect ; and benevolence is followed up by the most delightful enjoyment ; and every virtue fully exercised produces peace and pleasing reflections ; and encourages us to look forward also to the approbation of our Maker.

'Hence we infer, that He who formed this constitution of our nature, must be himself infinitely just.'

Under the general head of *Providence*, the subject of chapter II., the author removes difficulties, illustrates the doctrine of Providence, and unfolds its tendency as it respects inanimate nature, the world of life, and the care of man.

In the third chapter, which strongly urges the importance of forming worthy conceptions of the Deity, we meet, among other things, with some excellent remarks on the worship of God, and on Prayer ; in which the objections to this duty are neatly combated, and the principles on which it should be conducted are explained :

'Can we be sure that the plan of His moral government may not be founded on the principle of giving to his rational creatures, such things of this life, as he may see to be proper for them, upon condition, that they ask such things aright, and conduct themselves also, in all respects, agreeable to His will ? The language of our Saviour encourages such a supposition by calling on us to *ask and it shall be given to you ; seek and ye shall find ; knock and it shall be opened unto you*. But, without pretending to give a decision on such a principle, one thing we may affirm, that asking of God temporal things is a proper way of acknowledging our dependence upon Him ; and this is a duty of great importance, and cannot fail to produce a proper effect. Asking of God strength and assistance, asking of Him virtues and graces, is an engagement on our part to labour after these virtues and graces. Thus, the very act of prayer, in these respects, has a tendency to produce the very thing that we are asking, and to give to the mind both strength and assistance. In every sense, then, prayer is an important and improving duty.'

As to the proper language of prayer, it is observed :

'Our prayers should be as simple as possible, adapted to the knowledge and understanding of Christians in general. No dark or disputed
tenets

tenets ought to be introduced ; no reference to subjects, but what are generally known, that all may follow and understand. Figurative expressions ought to be avoided, for these lead to mistakes. In the use of scripture language, we should beware of applying to the present state of things, expressions applicable to different ages, and to people very differently circumstanced. For instance, the Psalmist prays, *save me from the lion's mouth, and from the horns of the unicorn*. Such language we can have no clear conception of, and therefore, though found in scripture, it would be highly improper to use.'—

'Men of sense, and a proper degree of modesty, will always feel a diffidence and distrust of themselves, when they are thus approaching the more immediate presence of their Maker. It is in that same awful presence that the holy spirits are represented, as covering their faces with their wings and saying: *Holy, Holy, Holy, Lord God Almighty, which was and is and is to come!* How unlike is this solemn service to those prayers which consist of eager contentions in uttering the most terrible sentiments of the great Father of all ; and labouring to harrow up every thing that can alarm and distress the weak and the ignorant ; and charging themselves with every vice, that they can rake together from the vilest of mankind !'

We pass over the fourth chapter, on Revealed Religion, not because it ought to be passed over, but because we are anxious to draw attention to Mr. Watson's fifth and sixth chapters, on Religious Duties and Internal Feelings ; since, in the first of these, he has placed Morality on its true basis, and, in the latter, has driven Enthusiasm out of the field :

'Were we to explain the Christian duties by what Christ himself taught, we should find it a system plain, and which all men may perfectly understand. He lays the greatest stress upon the performance of moral duties ; and never intermingles with his instructions, on this head, any principle or doctrine, that can lessen our obligation to the performance. And teachers of Christianity should be extremely cautious of advancing any sentiments, which can lessen our esteem and regard for those duties which Christ plainly taught.

'It is necessary to enter this caution, because we so often find books, which put in their claim to the purest Gospel instructions, in which, it is not only insinuated but plainly taught and asserted, that good works can never be accepted by God ; that it is dangerous to rely upon them ; and, that there is no kind of merit in their performance. Now, if men can be persuaded, that such are the genuine doctrines of Christ, they will pay no attention to duties that are useless in themselves, and cannot bring them nearer to the kingdom of God. They will, of course, be under the impression of no fear, when they neglect such performances ; because their salvation can in nowise be concerned, in obeying these commands of their Maker.

'What must be the natural effect of such instructions ? Is not this opening a wide door to every kind of vice, and letting in immorality like a flood ? I know, that there are many men of excellent characters who support these principles ; and that they wish not to

encourage vice ; that they have a method of recommending moral duties, in a circuitous route, and labour to avoid the charge of countenancing immorality. But the manner of avoiding such charges is so dark and perplexed, that it is not easy for those who are possessed of an enlarged understanding to become masters of the explanation : in what situations then must be Christians of honest hearts, but of plain capacities ? The odium which they cast upon moral duties can be understood by all ; but the obligation after this, to their observance, few can distinctly comprehend, loaded with so many puzzling explanations. There is no way to extricate themselves from such difficulties, but by relying upon the word and authority of their teachers. This is carrying Protestants back to that implicit faith which we blame so much in the Catholic church ; and the deliverance from which constitutes one of the greatest blessings of the Reformation. And though the gospel be preached to the poor, yet it requires great learning to understand *this* gospel.'

While Mr. W. is ready to admit that, among those who declaim against the merit of good works, men of the most excellent character and exemplary lives are to be found, he regards this circumstance rather as matter for lamentation than triumph, since the deadly poison of their doctrine is thus recommended and countenanced. The exposition of the Calvinistic system, as it respects Grace as well as Good Works, is calculated for the meridian of good sense, and will be relished in that quarter :

' God from all eternity destined a certain number of rational creatures to be called forth into being, in time, and to be placed in such a situation, that very important duties were required of them ; but they can do nothing. By the very condition of their existence, they have it not in their power, and they never had it in their power, to do any thing : and this condition is imposed on them by their Maker. Some of these, however, by his sovereign will and pleasure, He raised to everlasting life ; but another part, what portion we are not permitted to say, are left to everlasting misery. And can this statement magnify the sovereign grace of God ! Is this the God and father of our Lord Jesus Christ, who, we are taught, is no respecter of persons ? What idea could we form of a sovereign among men, who could act upon this principle ? We could neither call him gracious nor just. We might fear him, but we could not love him, And is this to be called GRACE ! How is language prostituted, in such doctrines ! What insults do men thus offer to their Father in heaven !'

Modern enthusiasts will not forgive Mr. W. for the boldness with which he beats up their quarters :

' There is another species of religious enthusiasm, of a baser origin, that runs counter to common sense ; that is not authorised by scripture ; to which men of weak minds are liable, which crafty men feign, and which interested men foment and encourage. It is this, which
produces

produces those wild feelings, or expressions of feelings, which outrage all reason and experience. Men, under the influence of this spirit, pretend to feel, sometimes horrors most dreadful, and, at other times, joys unutterable. But they carry this still farther. They believe, or affect to believe, that they receive also communications from heaven, and illuminations from above; and proceeding to the utmost height of extravagance, they feel assured, that their sins are pardoned, and that their eternal happiness is secure.'—

'From the general principles of Christ's religion, we can find no authority for such delusions; and in the general mass of those, who maintain such principles, we see no improvement in their morals, to justify such extravagant pretensions. The allowing also of such principles is opening a wide door for every thing, that is wild and extravagant, and is exposing the religion of Christ to the scorn of the unbeliever, by divesting it of every thing that is rational.'

The concluding chapter, on the Sanctions of the Gospel, forms a proper finish to the arguments and reflections which pervade this treatise, which is designed to convince the reader of the unity of religion and morality. It is strange, "passing strange," after the divinely lucid preaching of our Lord on this subject, that any attempt should be made to separate that which God has eternally joined together: but, perhaps, as long as the passions of men revolt at the purity of virtue, they will try, however ineffectually, to find out a substitute for it; and that preaching will become fashionable which removes morality into the back-ground, and represents the admission of a tenet as of more importance than the practice of a duty.

Though Mr. Watson's reasoning is so valid, his language is not always correct; and it is frequently marked by Scoticism.

ART. IV. *The Geography and Antiquities of Ithaca.* Dedicated, by Permission, to the King. By William Gell, Esq. M. A. F.R.S. F.S.A. and Member of the Society of Dilettanti. 4to. pp. 119. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. V. *The Itinerary of Greece*; with a Commentary on Pausanias and Strabo, and an Account of the Monuments of Antiquity at present existing in that Country; compiled in the Years 1801, 2, 5, 6. By William Gell, Esq. &c. &c. 4to. pp. 171. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1810.

THAT laudable curiosity concerning the remains of classical antiquity, which has of late years increased among our countrymen, is in no traveller or author more conspicuous than in Mr. Gell. Whatever difference of opinion may yet exist with regard to the success of the several disputants in the

famous Trojan controversy *, or, indeed, relating to the present author's merits as an inspector of the Troad, it must universally be acknowledged that any work, which more forcibly impresses on our imaginations the scenes of heroic action, and the subjects of immortal song, possesses claims on the attention of every scholar.

Of the two works which now demand our report, we conceive the former to be by far the most interesting to the reader, as the latter is indisputably the most serviceable to the traveller. Excepting, indeed, the running commentary which it contains on a number of extracts from Pausanias and Strabo, it is, as the title imports, a mere itinerary of Greece, or rather of Argolis only, in its present circumstances. This being the case, surely it would have answered every purpose of utility much better by being printed as a pocket road-book of that part of the Morea; for a quarto is a very unmanageable travelling companion. The maps † and drawings, we shall be told, would not permit such an arrangement: but as to the drawings, they are not in general to be admired as specimens of the art; and several of them, as we have been assured by eye-witnesses of the scenes which they describe, do not compensate for their mediocrity in point of execution by any extraordinary fidelity of representation. Others, indeed, are more faithful, according to our informants. The true reason, however, for this costly mode of publication is in course to be found in a desire of gratifying the public passion for large margins, and all the luxury of typography; and we have before expressed our dissatisfaction with Mr. Gell's aristocratical mode of communicating a species of knowledge, which ought to be accessible to a much greater portion of classical students than can at present acquire it by his means: — but, as such expostulations are generally useless, we shall be thankful for what we can obtain, and that in the manner in which Mr. Gell has chosen to present it.

The former of these volumes, we have observed, is the most attractive in the closet. It comprehends a very full survey of the far-famed island which the hero of the *Odyssey* has immortalized;

* We have it from the best authority that the venerable leader of the Anti-Homeric sect, Jacob Bryant, several years before his death expressed regret for his ungrateful attempt to destroy some of the most pleasing associations of our youthful studies. One of his last wishes was — “*Trojaque nunc staret,*” &c.

† Or, rather, *Map*; for we have only one in the volume, and that is on too small a scale to give more than a general idea of the relative position of places. The excuse about a larger map not folding well is trifling; see, for instance, the author's own map of Ithaca.

alized; for we really are inclined to think that the author has established the identity of the modern *Theaki* with the *Ithaca* of Homer. At all events, if it be an illusion, it is a very agreeable deception, and is effected by an ingenious interpretation of the passages in Homer that are supposed to be descriptive of the scenes which our traveller has visited. We shall extract some of these adaptations of the antient picture to the modern scene, marking the points of resemblance which appear to be strained and forced, as well as those which are more easy and natural: but we must first insert some preliminary matter from the opening chapter. The following passage conveys a sort of general sketch of the book, which may give our readers a tolerably adequate notion of its contents:

‘The present work may adduce, by a simple and correct survey of the island, coincidences in its geography, in its natural productions and moral state, before unnoticed. Some will be directly pointed out; the fancy or ingenuity of the reader may be employed in tracing others; the mind familiar with the imagery of the *Odyssey* will recognise with satisfaction the scenes themselves; and this volume is offered to the public, not entirely without hopes of vindicating the poem of Homer from the scepticism of those critics who imagine that the *Odyssey* is a mere poetical composition, unsupported by history, and unconnected with the localities of any particular situation.

‘Some have asserted that, in the comparison of places now existing with the descriptions of Homer, we ought not to expect coincidence in minute details; yet it seems only by these that the kingdom of Ulysses, or any other, can be identified, as, if such an idea be admitted, every small and rocky island in the Ionian Sea, containing a good port, might, with equal plausibility, assume the appellation of Ithaca.

‘The Venetian geographers have in a great degree contributed to raise those doubts which have existed on the identity of the modern with the ancient Ithaca, by giving, in their charts, the name of Val di Compare to the island. That name is however totally unknown in the country, where the isle is invariably called Ithaca by the upper ranks, and Theaki by the vulgar. The Venetians have equally corrupted the name of almost every place in Greece; yet, as the natives of Epactos or Naupactos never heard of Lepanto, those of Zacynthos of Zante, or the Athenians of Settines, it would be as unfair to rob Ithaca of its name on such authority, as it would be to assert that no such island existed, because no tolerable representation of its form can be found in the Venetian surveys.

‘The rare medals of the Island, of which three are represented in the title-page, might be adduced as a proof that the name of Ithaca was not lost during the reigns of the Roman emperors. They have the head of Ulysses, recognised by the pileum, or pointed cap, while the reverse of one presents the figure of a cock, the emblem of his vigilance, with the legend *ΙΘΑΚΩΝ*. A few of these medals are preserved.

served in the cabinets of the curious, and one also, with the cock, found in the island, is in the possession of Signor Zavo, of Bathi. The uppermost coin is in the collection of Dr. Hunter; the second is copied from Newman, and the third is the property of R. P. Knight, Esq.

Several inscriptions, which will be hereafter produced, will tend to the confirmation of the idea that Ithaca was inhabited about the time when the Romans were masters of Greece; yet there is every reason to believe that few, if any, of the present proprietors of the soil are descended from ancestors who had long resided successively in the island. Even those who lived, at the time of Ulysses, in Ithaca, seem to have been on the point of emigrating to Argos, and no chief remained, after the second in descent from that hero, worthy of being recorded in history. It appears that the isle has been twice colonised from Cephalonia in modern times, and I was informed that a grant had been made by the Venetians, entitling each settler in Ithaca to as much land as his circumstances would enable him to cultivate.*

Mr. Gell then proceeds to invalidate the authority of previous writers on the subject of Ithaca. Sir George Wheeler and M. Le Chevalier fall under his severe animadversion; and indeed, according to his account, neither of these gentlemen had visited the island, and the description of the latter is 'absolutely too absurd for refutation.' In another place, he speaks of M. Le C. 'disgracing a work of such merit by the introduction of such fabrications:' again, of the inaccuracy of the author's maps; and, lastly, of his inserting an island at the southern entry of the Channel between Cephalonia and Ithaca, which has no existence. This observation very nearly approaches to the use of that monosyllable which Gibbon*, without expressing it, so adroitly applied to some assertion of his antagonist, Mr. Davies. In truth, our traveller's words are rather bitter towards his brother-tourist: but we must conclude that their justice warrants their severity.

In the second chapter, the author describes his landing in Ithaca, and arrival at the rock Korax and the fountain Arcthusa, as he designates it with sufficient positiveness. — This rock, now known by the name of Korax, or Koraka Petra, he contends to be the same with that which Homer mentions as contiguous to the habitation of Eumæus, the faithful swine-herd of Ulysses. — We shall take the liberty of adding to our extracts from Mr. Gell some of the passages in Homer to which he refers only, conceiving this to be the fairest method of exhibiting the strength or the weakness of his argument. 'Ulysses,'

* See his *Vindication* of the 15th and 16th chapters of the *Deline and Fall*, &c.

he observes, 'came to the extremity of the isle to visit Eumæus, and that extremity was the most southern; for Tele-machus, coming from Pylos, touched at the first south-easterly part of Ithaca with the same intention.'

Και τότε δὴ ρ' Ὀδυσσεύς κλέος ποθεν ἦγαγε δαίμων
 Ἀγρυπνέει' ἰσχυατίνην, ἐθι δώματα ναιε συβωτῆς.
 Ἐνθ' ἦλθεν φίλος υἱὸς Ὀδυσσεύος θεοιοῖο,
 Ἐκ Πύλου ἡμαθιοῦνός τ' ἰὼν συν τῇ μελαινῇ
 Ὀδυσσεύϊ Ω.

Ἄνταρ ἱκνῶ πρώτῃν ἀκτὴν Ἰθάκῃς ἀφικμαι,
 Νῆα μὲν εἰς πόλιν ὄτρυναι καὶ παντὶς ἱταίρου.
 Ἄντος δὲ πρώτιστα συβωτῇν ἐσαφικμισθαι,
 κ. τ. λ. Ὀδυσσεύϊ Ο.

These citations, we think, appear to justify the author in his attempt to identify the situation of his rock and fountain, with the place of those mentioned by Homer: but let us now follow him in the closer description of the scene. — After some account of the subjects in the plate affixed, Mr. Gell remarks: 'It is impossible to visit this sequestered spot without being struck with the recollection of the Fount of Arethusa and the Rock Korax which the Poet mentions in the same line, adding, that there the swine eat the *sweet** acorns, and drank the black water.'

Δῆεις τὸν γε σὺεσσι παρημενον· αἱ δὲ νεμονταί
 Παρ Κορακὸς πείρη, ἵπι τε κρήνῃ Ἀρεθυσῇ,
 Εἶσθαι βαλανὸν μινουικέα, καὶ μελαινὴν ὕδωρ
 Πίνεσθαι.
 Ὀδυσσεύϊ Ν.

* Having passed some time at the fountain, taken a drawing, and made the necessary observations on the situation of the place, we proceeded to an examination of the precipice, climbing over the terraces above the source, among shady fig-trees, which, however, did not prevent us from feeling the powerful effects of the mid-day sun. After a short, but fatiguing ascent, we arrived at the rock, which extends in a vast perpendicular semicircle, beautifully fringed with trees, facing to the south-east. Under the crag we found two caves of inconsiderable extent, the entrance of one of which, not difficult of access, is seen in the view of the fount. They are still the resort of sheep and goats, and in one of them are small natural receptacles for the water, covered by a stalagmitic incrustation.

† These caves, being at the extremity of the curve formed by the precipice, open toward the south, and present us with another accompaniment of the Fount of Arethusa mentioned by the poet, who

* 'Sweet acorns.' Does Mr. Gell translate from the Latin? To avoid similar cause of mistake, *μινουικέα* should not be rendered *suavem* but *gratam*, as Barnes has given it.

informs us that the swineherd Eumæus left his guests in the house, whilst he, putting on a thick garment, went to sleep near the herd, under the hollow of the rock, which sheltered him from the northern blast. Now we know that the herd fed near the fount, for Minerva tells Ulysses that he is to go first to Eumæus, whom he should find with the swine, near the Rock Korax and the Fount of Arethusa. As the swine then fed at the fountain, so it is necessary that a cavern should be found in its vicinity, and this seems to coincide, in distance and situation, with that of the poem. Near the fount also was the fold or stathmos of Eumæus, for the goddess informs Ulysses that he should find his faithful servant at or above the fount.

Now the hero meets the swineherd close to the fold, which was consequently very near that source. At the top of the rock, and just above the spot where the waterfall shoots down the precipice, is at this day a stagni or pastoral dwelling, which the herdsmen of Ithaca still inhabit, on account of the water necessary for their cattle. One of these people walked on the verge of the precipice at the time of our visit to the place, and seemed so anxious to know how we had been conveyed to the spot, that his enquiries reminded us of a question probably not uncommon in the days of Homer, who more than once represents the Ithacenses demanding of strangers what ship had brought them to the island, it being evident they could not come on foot. He told us that there was, on the summit where he stood, a small cistern of water, and a kalybea, or shepherd's hut. There are also vestiges of ancient habitations, and the place is now called Amarāthia.

Convenience, as well as safety, seems to have pointed out the lofty situation of Amarāthia, as a fit place for the residence of the herdsmen of this part of the island from the earliest ages. A small source of water is a treasure in these climates, and if the inhabitants of Ithaca now select a rugged and elevated spot, to secure them from the robbers of the Echinades, it is to be recollected that the Taphian pirates were not less formidable, even in the days of Ulysses, and that a residence in a solitary part of the island, far from the fortress, and close to a celebrated fountain, must at all times have been dangerous, without some such security as the rocks of Korax. Indeed, there can be no doubt that the house of Eumæus was on the top of the precipice, for Ulysses, in order to evince the truth of his story to the swineherd, desires to be thrown from the summit if his narration does not prove correct.

Near the bottom of the precipice is a curious natural gallery, about seven feet high, which is expressed in the plate. It may be fairly presumed, from the very remarkable coincidence between this place and the Homeric account, that this was the scene designated by the poet as the fountain of Arethusa, and the residence of Eumæus; and perhaps it would be impossible to find another spot which bears, at this day, so strong a resemblance to a poetic description composed at a period so very remote. There is no other fountain in this part of the island, nor any rock which bears the slightest resemblance to the Korax of Homer.

The stathmos of the good Eumæus appears to have been little different, either in use or construction, from the stagni and kalybea
of

of the present day. The poet expressly mentions that other herdsmen drove their flocks into the city at sun-set, a custom which still prevails throughout Greece during the winter, and that was the season in which Ulysses visited Eumæus. Yet Homer accounts for this deviation from the prevailing custom, by observing that he had retired from the city to avoid the suitors of Penelope. These trifling occurrences afford a strong presumption that the Ithaca of Homer was something more than the creature of his own fancy, as some have supposed it; for though the grand outline of a fable may be easily imagined, yet the consistent adaptation of minute incidents to a long and elaborate falsehood is a task of the most arduous and complicated nature.'

After this long extract, by which we have endeavoured to do justice to Mr. Gell's argument, we cannot allow room for any farther quotations of such extent; and we must offer a brief and imperfect analysis of the remainder of the work.

In the third chapter, the traveller arrives at the capital, and in the IVth he describes it in an agreeable manner. We select his account of the mode of celebrating a Christian festival in the Greek church:

'We were present at the celebration of the feast of the Ascension, when the citizens appeared in their gayest dresses, and saluted each other in the streets with demonstrations of pleasure. As we sate at breakfast in the house of Signor Zavo, we were suddenly roused by the discharge of a gun, succeeded by a tremendous crash of pottery, which fell on the tiles, steps, and pavements, in every direction. The bells of the numerous churches commenced a most discordant jingle; colours were hoisted on every mast in the port, and a general shout of joy announced some great event. Our host informed us that the feast of the Ascension was annually commemorated in this manner at Bathi, the populace exclaiming *ανέστη ο Χριστός, αληθινός ο Θεός*, Christ is risen, the true God.'

In another passage, he continues this account as follows.—
'In the evening of the festival, the inhabitants danced before their houses; and at one we saw the figure which is said to have been first used by the youths and virgins of Delos, at the happy return of Theseus from the expedition of the Cretan Labyrinth. It has now lost much of that intricacy which was supposed to allude to the windings of the habitation of the Minotaur,' &c. &c. This is rather too much for even the inflexible gravity of our censorial muscles. When the author talks, with all the *reality* (if we may use the expression) of a Lempriere, on the stories of the fabulous ages, we cannot refrain from indulging a momentary smile; nor can we seriously accompany him in the learned architectural detail by which he endeavours to give us, from the Odyssey, the ground plot of the house of Ulysses, — of which he actually offers a plan in drawing!

drawing ! ' shewing how the description of the house of Ulysses in the *Odyssey* may be supposed to correspond with the foundations yet visible on the hill of Aito ! '—Oh Foote ! Foote ! why are you lost to such inviting subjects for your ludicrous pencil !—In his account of this celebrated mansion, Mr. Gell says, one side of the court seems to have been occupied by the *Thalamos*, or sleeping apartments of the men, &c. &c.; and, in confirmation of this hypothesis, he refers to the 10th *Odyssey*, line 340.—On examining his reference, we read,

Ἐς θαλαμον τ' ἵναι, καὶ οἱ ἐπιβήμεναι ἐνὺν.

where Ulysses records an invitation which he received from Circe to take a part of her bed. How this illustrates the above conjecture, we are at a loss to divine : but we suppose that some numerical error has occurred in the reference, as we have detected a trifling mistake or two of the same nature.

Mr. G. labours hard to identify the cave of Dexia, near Bathi, (the capital of the island,) with the grotto of the Nymphs described in the 13th *Odyssey*. We are disposed to grant that he has succeeded : but we cannot here enter into the proofs by which he supports his opinion ; and we can only extract one of the concluding sentences of the chapter, which appears to us candid and judicious :

' Whatever opinion may be formed as to the identity of the cave of Dexia with the grotto of the Nymphs, it is fair to state, that Strabo positively asserts, that no such cave as that described by Homer existed in his time, and that geographer thought it better to assign a physical change, rather than ignorance in Homer, to account for a difference which he imagined to exist between the Ithaca of his time, and that of the poet. But Strabo, who was an uncommonly accurate observer with respect to countries surveyed by himself, appears to have been wretchedly misled by his informers on many occasions.

' That Strabo had never visited this country is evident, not only from his inaccurate account of it, but from his citation of Appollodorus and Scepsius, whose relations are in direct opposition to each other on the subject of Ithaca, as will be demonstrated on a future opportunity.'

We must, however, observe that 'demonstration' is a strong term.—In his description of the Leucadian Promontory, (of which we have a pleasing representation in the plate,) the author remarks that it is 'celebrated for the *leap* of Sappho, and the *death* of Artemisia.' From this variety in the expression, a reader would hardly conceive that both the ladies perished in the same manner : in fact, the sentence is as proper as it would be to talk of the decapitation of Russell, and the death of Sidney.—The view from this promontory includes the island
of

of Corfu; and the name suggests to Mr. Gell the following note, which, though rather irrelevant, is of a curious nature, and we therefore conclude our citations by transcribing it:

‘It has been generally supposed that Corfu, or Corcyra, was the Phæacia of Homer; but Sir Henry Englefield thinks the position of that island inconsistent with the voyage of Ulysses as described in the *Odyssey*. That gentleman has also observed a number of such remarkable coincidences, between the courts of Alcinous and Solomon, that they may be thought curious and interesting. Homer was familiar with the names of Tyre, Sidon, and Egypt, and as he lived about the time of Solomon, it would not have been extraordinary if he had introduced some account of the magnificence of that prince into his poem. As Solomon was famous for wisdom, so the name of Alcinous signifies strength of knowledge; as the gardens of Solomon were celebrated, so are those of Alcinous; (*Od.* 7, 112.) as the kingdom of Solomon was distinguished by 12 tribes under 12 princes, (*1st Kings*, cap. 4.), so that of Alcinous (*Od.* 8. 390.) was ruled by an equal number; as the throne of Solomon was supported by lions of gold, (*1st Kings*, ch. 10.) so that of Alcinous was placed on dogs of silver and gold (*Od.* 7, 91.); as the fleets of Solomon were famous, so were those of Alcinous. It is perhaps worthy of remark, that Neptune sate on the mountains of the SOLYMI, as he returned from Æthiopia to Ægæ, while he raised the tempest which threw Ulysses on the coast of Phæacia; and that the Solymi of Pamphylia are very considerably distant from the route. — The suspicious character, also, which Nausicaa attributes to her countryman, agrees precisely with that which the Greeks and Romans gave of the Jews.’

The VIIIth chapter contains a description of the Monastery of Kathara, and several adjacent places. The eighth, among other curiosities, fixes on an imaginary site for the Farm of Laertes: but this is the agony of conjecture indeed! — and the ninth chapter mentions another Monastery, and a rock still called the School of Homer. Some sepulchral inscriptions of a very simple nature are included. — The tenth and last chapter brings us round to the Port of Schoenus, near Bathi; after we have completed, seemingly in a very minute and accurate manner, the tour of the island.

We can certainly recommend a perusal of this volume to every lover of classical scene and story. If we may indulge the pleasing belief that Homer sang of a real kingdom, and that Ulysses governed it, though we discern many feeble links in Mr. Gell's chain of evidence, we are on the whole induced to fancy that this is the Ithaca of the bard and of the monarch. At all events, Mr. Gell has enabled every future traveller to form a clearer judgment on the question, than he could have established without such a “Vade-mecum to Ithaca,” or a

"Have with you, to the House of Ulysses," as the present. With Homer in his pocket, and Gell on his sumpter-horse or mule, the Odyssean tourist may now make a very classical and delightful excursion; and we doubt not that the advantages accruing to the Ithacences, from the increased number of travellers who will visit them in consequence of Mr. Gell's account of their country, will induce them to confer on that gentleman any heraldic honours which they may have to bestow, should he ever look in upon them again. — *Baron Bathi* would be a pretty title:

"*Hoc Ithacus velis, et magno mercentur Atride.*" Virgil.

For ourselves, we confess that all our old Grecian feelings would be alive on approaching the fountain of Melainudros, where, as the tradition runs, or as the priests relate, Homer was restored to sight.

We now come to the "Grecian Patterson," or "Cary," which Mr. Gell has begun to publish; and really he has carried the epic rule of concealing the person of the author to as great a length as either of the above mentioned heroes of itinerary writ. We hear nothing of his "hair-breadth 'scapes" by sea or land; and we do not even know, for the greater part of his journey through Argolis, whether he relates what he has seen or what he has heard. From other parts of the book, we find the former to be the case: but, though there have been tourists and "strangers" in other countries, who have kindly permitted their readers to learn rather too much of their sweet selves, yet it is possible to carry delicacy, or cautious silence, or whatever it may be called, to the contrary extreme. We think that Mr. Gell has fallen into this error, so opposite to that of his numerous brethren. It is offensive indeed to be told what a man has eaten for dinner, or how pathetic he was on certain occasions: but we like to know that there is a being yet living who describes the scenes to which he introduces us; and that it is not a mere translation from Strabo or Pausanias which we are reading, or a commentary on those authors. This reflection leads us to the concluding remark in Mr. Gell's preface (by much the most interesting part of his book) to his *Itinerary of Greece*, in which he thus expresses himself:

'The confusion of the modern with the ancient names of places in this volume is absolutely unavoidable; they are however mentioned in such a manner, that the reader will soon be accustomed to the indiscriminate use of them. The necessity of applying the ancient appellations to the different routes, will be evident from the total ignorance of the public on the subject of the modern names, which, having never appeared in print, are only known to the few individuals who have visited the country.

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‘What could appear less intelligible to the reader, or less useful to the traveller, than a route from Chione and Zaracca to Kutchukmadi, from thence to Krabata, to Schoenochorio, and by the mills of Peali, while every one is in some degree acquainted with the names of Stymphalus, Nemea, Mycenæ, Lyrceia, Lerna, and Tegea.’

Although this may be very true inasmuch as it relates to the reader, yet to the traveller we must observe, in opposition to Mr. Gell, that nothing can be less useful than the designation of his route according to the antient names. We might as well, and with as much chance of arriving at the place of our destination, talk to a Hounslow post-boy about making haste to *Augusta*, as apply to our Turkish guide in modern Greece for a direction to Stymphalus, Nemea, Mycenæ, &c. &c. This is neither more nor less than classical affectation; and it renders Mr. Gell's book of much more confined use than it would otherwise have been:—but we have some other and more important remarks to make on his general directions to Grecian tourists; and we beg leave to assure our readers that they are derived from travellers who have lately visited Greece. In the first place, Mr. Gell is absolutely incautious enough to recommend an interference on the part of English travellers with the Minister at the Porte, in behalf of the Greeks. ‘The folly of such neglect, (page 16. Preface) in many instances, where the emancipation of a district might often be obtained by the present of a snuff-box or a watch at Constantinople, and *without the smallest danger of exciting the jealousy of such a court as that of Turkey*, will be acknowledged when we are no longer able to rectify the error.’ We have every reason to believe, on the contrary, that the folly of half a dozen travellers, taking this advice, might bring us into a war. “Never interfere with any thing of the kind,” is a much sounder and more political suggestion to all English travellers in Greece.

Mr. Gell apologizes for the introduction of ‘his panoramic designs,’ as he calls them, on the score of the great difficulty of giving any tolerable idea of the face of a country in writing, and the ease with which a very accurate knowledge of it may be acquired by maps and panoramic designs.’ We are informed that this is not the case with many of these designs. The small scale of the single map we have already censured; and we have hinted that some of the drawings are not remarkable for correct resemblance of their originals. The two nearer views of the Gate of the Lions at Mycenæ are indeed good likenesses of their subject, and the first of them is unusually well executed: but the general view of Mycenæ is not more than tolerable in any respect; and the prospect of Larissa, &c. is barely equal to the former. The view *from* this last place

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is also indifferent; and we are positively assured that there are no windows at Nauplia which look like a box of dominos,—the idea suggested by Mr. Gell's plate. We must not, however, be too severe on these picturesque bagatelles, which probably were very hasty sketches; and the circumstances of weather, &c. may have occasioned some difference in the appearance of the same objects to different spectators. We shall therefore return to Mr. Gell's preface; endeavouring to set him right in his directions to travellers, where we think that he is erroneous, and adding what appears to have been omitted. In his first sentence, he makes an assertion which is by no means correct. He says, '*we are at present as ignorant of Greece, as of the interior of Africa.*' Surely not quite so ignorant; or several of our Grecian *Mungo Parks* have travelled in vain, and some very sumptuous works have been published to no purpose! As we proceed, we find the author observing that '*Athens is now the most polished city of Greece,*' when we believe it to be the most barbarous, even to a proverb.

ὦ Ἀθῆναι, πρώτη χώρα,
Τὶ γαυδάρις τρεφῆς τῶρα*;

is a couplet of reproach *now* applied to this once famous city; whose inhabitants seem little worthy of the inspiring call which was addressed to them within these twenty years, by the celebrated Riga,

Δεῦτε παῖδες τῶν Ἑλλήνων — κ. τ. λ.

Jannina, the capital of Epirus, and the seat of Ali Pacha's government, is in truth deserving of the honours which Mr. Gell has improperly bestowed on degraded Athens. As to the correctness of the remark concerning the fashion of wearing the hair cropped in *Molassia*, as Mr. Gell informs us, our authorities cannot depose: but why will he use the classical term of Eleuthero-Lacones, when that people are so much better known by their modern name of Mainotes? 'The court of the Pacha of Tripolizza' is said 'to realise the splendid visions of the Arabian Nights.' This is true with regard to the *Court*; but surely the traveller ought to have added that the city and palace are most miserable, and form an extraordinary contrast to the splendour of the Court.—Mr. Gell mentions *gold* mines in Greece: he should have specified their situation, as it certainly is not universally known. When, also, he remarks

* We write these lines from the *recitation* of the travellers to whom we have alluded: but we cannot vouch for the correctness of the *Romanc*.

that 'the first article of necessity in Greece is a firman, or order from the Sultan, permitting the traveller to pass unmolested,' we are much misinformed if he be right. On the contrary, we believe this to be almost the only part of the Turkish dominions in which a firman is not necessary; since the passport of the Pacha is absolute within his territory, (according to Mr. G.'s own admission,) and much more effectual than a firman.—'Money,' he remarks, 'is easily procured at Salonica, or Patrass, where the English have Consuls.' It is much better procured, we understand, from the Turkish governors, who never charge discount. The Consuls for the English are not of the most magnanimous order of Greeks, and far from being so liberal, generally speaking; although there are, in course, some exceptions, and Strune of Patrass has been more honourably mentioned.—After having observed that 'horses seem the best mode of conveyance in Greece,' Mr. Gell proceeds: 'some travellers would prefer an English saddle, but a saddle of this sort is always objected to by the owner of the horse, and *not without reason*,' &c. This, we learn, is far from being the case; and indeed, for a very simple reason, an English saddle must seem to be preferable to one of the country, because it is much lighter. When, too, Mr. Gell calls the *Postillion*, 'Menzilgi,' he mistakes him for his betters: *Serruges* are Postillions; *Menzilgis* are Postmasters.—Our traveller was fortunate in his Turks, who are hired to walk by the side of the baggage-horses. They 'are certain,' he says, 'of performing their engagement without grumbling.' We apprehend that this is by no means certain:—but Mr. Gell is perfectly right in preferring a Turk to a Greek for this purpose; and in his general recommendation to take a Janissary on the tour: who, we may add, should be suffered to act as he pleases, since nothing is to be done by gentle means, or even by offers of money, at the places of accommodation. A courier, to be sent on before to the place at which the traveller intends to sleep, is indispensable to comfort: but no tourist should be misled by the author's advice to suffer the Greeks to gratify their curiosity, in permitting them to remain for some time about him on his arrival at an inn. They should be removed as soon as possible; for, as to the remark that 'no stranger would think of intruding when a room is pre-occupied,' our informants were not so well convinced of that fact.

Though we have made the above exceptions to the accuracy of Mr. Gell's information, we are most ready to do justice to the general utility of his directions, and can certainly concede the praise which he is desirous of obtaining,—namely, 'of having facilitated the researches of future travellers, by afford-
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ing that local information which it was before impossible to obtain.' This book, indeed, is absolutely necessary to any person who wishes to explore the Morea advantageously; and we hope that Mr. Gell will continue his Itinerary over that and over every other part of Greece. He allows that his volume 'is only calculated to become a book of reference, and not of general entertainment?'—but we do not see any reason against the compatibility of both objects, in a survey of the most celebrated country of the antient world. To that country, we trust, the attention not only of our travellers, but of our legislators, will hereafter be directed. The greatest caution will indeed be required, as we have premised, in touching on so delicate a subject as the amelioration of the possessions of an ally: but the field for the exercise of political sagacity is wide and inviting in this portion of the globe; and Mr. Gell, and all other writers who interest us, however remotely, in its extraordinary *capabilities*, deserve well of the British empire. We shall conclude by an extract from the author's work: which, even if it fails of exciting that general interest which we hope most earnestly it may attract, towards its important subject, cannot, as he justly observes, 'be entirely uninteresting to the scholar;' since it is a work 'which gives him a faithful description of the remains of cities, the very existence of which was doubtful, as they perished before the æra of authentic history.' The subjoined quotation is a good specimen of the author's minuteness of research as a topographer; and we trust that the credit which must accrue to him from the present performance will ensure the completion of his Itinerary:

'The inaccuracies of the maps of Anacharsis are in many respects very glaring. The situation of Phlius is marked by Strabo as surrounded by the territories of Sicyon, Argos, Cleonæ, and Stymphalus. Mr. Hawkins observed, that Phlius, the ruins of which still exist near Agios Giorgios, lies in a direct line between Cleonæ and Stymphalus, and another from Sicyon to Argos, so that Strabo was correct in saying that it lay between those four towns, yet we see Phlius in the map of Argolis by M. Barbie du Bocage placed ten miles to the north of Stymphalus, contradicting both history and fact. D'Anville is guilty of the same error.

'M. du Bocage places a town named Phlius, and by him Phlionte, on the point of land which forms the port of Drepano; there are not at present any ruins there. The maps of D'Anville are generally more correct than any others where ancient geography is concerned. A mistake occurs on the subject of Tiryns, and a place named by him Vathia, but of which nothing can be understood. It is possible that Vathi, or the profound valley, may be a name sometimes used for the valley of Barbitsa, and that the place named by D'Anville Claustra, may be the outlet of that valley called Kleisoura, which has a corresponding signification.

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* The city of Tiryns is also placed in two different positions, once by its Greek name, and again as Tirynthus. The mistake between the islands of Sphæria and Calauria has been noticed in page 135. The Pontinus, which D'Anville represents as a river, and the Erasinus, are equally ill placed in his map. There was a place called Creopolis somewhere toward Cynouria, but its situation is not easily fixed. The ports called Bucephalium and Piræus seem to have been nothing more than little bays in the country between Corinth and Epidaurus. The town called Athenæ in Cynouria by Pausanias, is called Anthena by *Thucydides*, Book 5. 41.

* In general, the map of D'Anville will be found more accurate than those which have been published since his time; indeed the mistakes of that geographer are in general such as could not be avoided without visiting the country. Two errors of D'Anville may be mentioned, least the opportunity of publishing the itinerary of Arcadia should never occur. The first is that the rivers Malætas and Mylaon, near Methydrum, are represented as running toward the south, whereas they flow northwards to the Ladon; and the second is that the Aroanius, which falls into the Erymanthus at Psophis, is represented as flowing from the lake of Pheneos, a mistake which arises from the ignorance of the ancients themselves who have written on the subject. The fact is that the Ladon receives the waters of the lakes of Orchomenos and Pheneos, but the Aroanius rises at a spot not two hours distant from Psophis.*

In furtherance of our principal object in this critique, we have only to add a wish that some of our Grecian tourists, among the fresh articles of information concerning Greece which they have lately imported, would turn their minds to the language of the country. So strikingly similar to the antient Greek is the modern Romaic as a written language, and so dissimilar in sound, that even a few general rules concerning pronunciation would be of most extensive use.

ART. VI. *M. Faber's Sketches of the internal State of France.*

[Article concluded from p. 319.]

IN resuming our consideration of this interesting volume, we now come to that division of it which the author has intitled *Bonaparte on his Travels*; i. e. on his circuits through the provinces of his dominions. It is observed that the possession of power has lasted long enough with the French Ruler, to impress him with the notion which is common among hereditary princes, that it is an act of favor and condescension to shew themselves among the people. To this cause, and to the desire of persuading the inhabitants of the cities which he visits that the hours which they see him devote to business are occupied with their concerns, we may ascribe

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the frequency of his "Progresses." The ceremonial to be observed on these occasions has been prescribed in due form by decrees. Every prefect is to be in waiting on the frontiers of his department, and every sub-prefect on the boundary of his district. Each mayor is to advance at the head of his municipal council to meet the Emperor, while the rector is in readiness at the door of his church, and the bishop at the entrance of his cathedral. Such, however, is the haste of his Imperial Majesty, that he seldom stays longer than is necessary to change horses, and generally declines to hear the elaborate speech with which the leaders of deputations are prepared; having been often known to exclaim, "No harangue, gentlemen," as soon as the orator was ready to begin. He condescends, however, to ask for a copy in writing, and affords the intended speaker the satisfaction of reading it at full length in the official gazette in a few days. He affects, of late years, complete indifference to all the compliments which are paid him, and receives them as his due. When he takes up his abode at the house of a prefect, it is newly furnished and embellished at the expence of the department; messengers being dispatched before him to order and regulate every thing for his reception. In a town of consequence, he is in the habit of addressing questions to the public authorities, with regard to their population, revenue, expenditure, quota to the conscription, &c. These inquiries, being apposite and comprehensive, procured for him at first the reputation of an intimate knowledge of all the departments of his administration: but their incessant and almost literal repetition in his various circuits has opened the eyes of the public, and has shewn that a man may ask a number of general questions without being profoundly versed in the business of government. His journies, like other acts of his administration, are calculated merely for stage-effect, and to authorize the publication of the flattery which is addressed to him in strains such as these: "You arrive, and all our resources are instantaneously developed, all our wounds are at once healed; industry revives, credit is restored, agriculture prospers, the arts and sciences flourish anew."

'But,' says M. Faber, 'does Bonaparte in his journies do no good whatever in the places through which he passes? Are those accounts of his extraordinary application all fictitious? — Bonaparte in his journies, the same as when at Paris, displays prodigious activity. Besides the audiences which he gives to the local authorities, he transacts business with the counsellors of state or with the ministers. He takes very little rest: sometimes he orders the minister for foreign affairs, or war, to be called up in the middle of the night. At three o'clock in the morning he has a report read to him, or dictates ideas

for some official piece. This indefatigable industry is mentioned in the newspapers, and well it may be, for it surpasses the ordinary energies of man; every city in which it is displayed infers, but erroneously, that its local interests are the object of this application. It would be impolitic in Bonaparte to pay no attention at all to them; but they occupy the smallest portion of his solicitude and of his concern. The decrees relative to local objects seldom appear during Bonaparte's stay at the places themselves; he frequently leaves nothing but promises behind him, and the newspaper consoles itself with conjectures. — 'When he travels, 'tis the whole government of France, the cabinet of St. Cloud in perambulation. — The astonishing activity of the traveller is not directed to the places through which he passes, or to the present moment, but is dictated by his political character and views. I have attentively examined all the local regulations by which he has commemorated his passage through departments and provincial towns, and have never been able to discover a single act of generosity. — The first regulation that is offered to or forced upon the cities is the establishment of an *octroi municipal*, or duty on provisions, or an increase of its rates, if previously established. The next measure is to give orders for the execution of the public works which are called for: such as the construction of a port, an exchange, a bridge, a new road, or a canal; the erection of an *entrepôt* for prohibited commodities, denominated *port-franc*; the repairing of a cathedral, a prison, or an hospital. The invariable rule, in all these cases, is to throw the expence upon those who require the establishment. If the revenues of the commune and the produce of the *octroi* are not sufficient for the purpose, extraordinary taxes are imposed, and the *centimes additionels* already charged in the tax-list are raised.' — 'In eleven of the northern departments of France the canals are in a ruinous condition; an additional tax to continue for a number of years was laid upon the inhabitants to defray the expence of putting them in order. It is the same in the south, in the west, in the east; it is the same in every part of France. As to the measures which Bonaparte commands, he never furnishes more towards them than the decree and his name. The favours which he grants are always burdens, and his boasted beneficence invariably saddles his wretched subjects with new imposts. I have often seen magistrates and people who would fain have been released from the weight of decrees bountifully issued in their behalf.' —

'In these journeys, indeed, he displays an activity which astonishes the spectator. No sooner does he alight from his carriage than he receives the Authorities. When the audience is over he mounts his horse, and rides round the town to reconnoitre its situation and its environs. If it happens to be late when he arrives, this reconnoissance is deferred till day-break the next morning, at six, five, or perhaps at four o'clock. Before the inhabitants are out of bed, Bonaparte has often returned to his lodgings. I have known him immediately on alighting propose a hunting-party, which has lasted several hours. All his surveys are taken with extreme rapidity. Bonaparte, mounted on his Arabian horse, generally leaves those who accompany him far behind; while waiting for them to rejoin him he gains time to

make his observations. With the exception, perhaps, of some General, extraordinarily well mounted, scarcely any one of his suite can keep pace with him ; his favourite Mameluke, Roustan, who attends with the led horses, often cannot. The citizen commanding the guard of honour, who has obtained permission to follow him, is generally the first obliged to give in. Bonaparte has sometimes fatigued two horses in riding round a town of a moderate size. Falls from their horses are not at all uncommon to his suite ; I myself saw this happen once to Roustan. Bonaparte always seeks the shortest roads ; he never follows the windings, and obstacles do not stop him : he leaps over walls, hedges, and ditches, leaving those who follow him to go round. He scales, on horseback, mountains almost inaccessible to the pedestrian, and descends them in the same manner ; he has been seen mounting in this way an ascent almost perpendicular, situated near Aix la Chapelle, and descending from it. He often makes with his Arabians most dangerous leaps : his friends have remarked to him the risks to which he exposes himself ; to which he one day answered, "Do you not know that I am the first horseman in the world?" Bonaparte is certainly a good horseman, without grace or dignity, it is true, but with a firmness, and a rare sang-froid, he shews himself every where absolute master of his seat. Wherever he passes he leaves behind him the remembrance of the rapidity of his course, of the boldness of his leaps, and of an activity unparalleled. He always appears in the act of reconnoitring spots of ground fit for the positions of armies, for forts or redoubts. One would say, to see his active haste, that he was preparing to give battle the following day. Round a manufacturing, a commercial, or an agricultural town, Bonaparte's circuits always bear the same character ; he carries the same coup d'œil every where. It is true that this coup d'œil is just ; it is always that of an experienced engineer, and one that may become very useful when it is necessary. At first sight Bonaparte will point out the best direction to be given to a projected canal, the best place for establishing or for constructing a port or a dyke.—

‘ Bonaparte does not come like a father to be surrounded by his children ; he appears like a master among his slaves. When saluted, he pays no attention ; thousands of heads are uncovered when he passes, he makes not the slightest inclination ; never is his hat moved from his head, he seems deaf to the cries of *Vivat* and *buzza* ! Never is the least impression visible on his countenance, nothing astonishes him, nothing rejoices him. When he is spoken to, his physiognomy remains immoveable, and seems to express that he knows beforehand all that can be told him. He allows speeches to be recited to him as so many formulas which he knows to be dictated ; it is painful to him to listen to them ; he submits to this pain, not for himself, but because he wishes the world to learn what men say to him to confess their subjection. If he ask questions it is in the tone of command. He will be answered with quickness ; he will be promptly obeyed. It were better so give a false answer than hesitate. A man in office, scrupulous in his assertions, incurs reprimands. Well-informed men have been removed into other departments for not having replied with confidence. Others have obtained crosses of the legion of honour for having

having answered with boldness.'—'If Bonaparte will not be beloved, he is well paid in return. He finds nowhere attachment, nowhere enthusiasm, for the one necessarily combines with the other. The curious crowd which follows Bonaparte in his various courses is mute. Not a voice would be heard when he passes, if the police was not careful to organize the sounds. I have seen placed by the local authorities among different groups of people certain barkers, to cry with stentorian voices, *Vive l'Empereur!* They lead the mob, and rule it by terror. Their voices pierce amidst the groupes, and are heard in different places and at different moments above all others. I have seen how these men have been compelled to lower their voices; their game being too gross and easily discovered. In towns where the idiom is Italian or German, one hears French voices insulated amidst the native groupes.'—

'I have seen this man; I have seen him an officer in the artillery, general in the army, consul, emperor! When yet the Italian in his name gave him no concern, all then was Italian about him, his physiognomy, his complexion; he had neither the habits, the manners, nor the agreeable figure of a Frenchman; the rough motions and the sharp form of the foreigner displeased. A cold reserved air gave his exterior an appearance of indifference for all about him. He always walked concentrated in himself. He is simple in his private manners, in his tastes, and in his wants. An uniform the least shewy: a black hat, without any other ornament than the cockade—this is his dress. His ostentatious splendour is not for himself, but for others. He is a slave to it in order to reign over others; he is a borrowed character in the imperial mantle, as in the hat à la *Henri IV.*, as he is in all costumes, but it is better to be a borrowed character than not to have consequence—he has neither a taste for the table, nor for women, nor for the fine arts; these tastes would level him with other men: he has only one, that of being above them. He speaks little, he speaks without selection, and with a kind of incorrectness. He gives little coherence to his ideas; he is satisfied to sketch them by strong outlines.'

The Conscription.—It was in the year 1798 that the system of Requisition established under Robespierre was exchanged for that of Conscription, the principle of which is to render all males between twenty and twenty-five disposable for military duty at the will of government. Whoever has completed any year from his twentieth to his twenty-fifth, by the first day of the current year, is liable to serve. The first class of conscripts consists of those who have attained their twentieth year; and it is this class only that has hitherto been called into service. The second class, composed of those who have passed their twenty-first year, is not liable to serve till the whole of the first has actually joined; and so of the rest, class by class. Hitherto, the last four classes have suffered only in apprehension, and the number annually required, from 60,000 to 80,000, has been found among their younger coun-

trymen: but towards the first class, the operation of the law is positive and severe. Neither primogeniture nor marriage, nor the circumstance of being an only son, affords exemption from personal service; and even those who, from infirmity, are incapable of marching, are subjected to a heavy contribution. The conscripts obliged to march are again divided into two classes; the first consisting of those who are destined for the active army; the second, of those who form the reserve, and are called out as necessity requires. The delay of danger in the case of the latter is but temporary; one year may pass away without their taking the field: but during the continuance of wars so lavish of blood as those which have been lately waged, their turn can scarcely fail to come. It is important to remark that Bonaparte has the power of calling out all conscripts of reserve under the age of twenty-five; a power which he actually put into practice in the year 1805. The law permits, indeed, service by substitute: but, expensive as we find substitutes in this country, they are infinitely more so in France, because the law confines exceedingly the range of choice; enacting, as indispensable conditions, that the substitute shall be of the same district and of the same age as the youth who was drawn. In the first years of the execution of the conscript-law, substitutes were found for 20l. or 30l. sterling; but at present they cost nearly ten times as much, a sum which surpasses the means of the middling ranks in France; and the magnitude of which has forced the inhabitants, in most districts, to form societies for the purpose of furnishing the requisite number of substitutes by personal contributions.

The execution of the conscription-law is the operation to which Bonaparte attaches the most consequence of any act of civil administration; and his functionaries are therefore cautious how they venture to screen a single individual. Certain punishment awaits the officer whose partiality should induce him to give a certificate of exemption where it could not be sustained; and not a surer road to favour can be found than to make the greatest exertions in enforcing the execution of this law. All the prefects, sub-prefects, and mayors, publish annually circular instructions, and explanatory rules, to insure the success of the operations. The first proceeding is to form the lists from the parish-register of the year which has furnished the births; and the next is to ascertain the existence of those who are in life. They are then described in the lists with the greatest care, and copies of the description are left at the chief town of the sub-prefecture. All preliminary arrangements being made, the mayor notifies the day of drawing.

• It is a day, (says M. Faber,) of public mourning, and of agony in every family. All labour is abandoned; every one has a melancholy interest in being present at the solemnity. The drawing is performed in the public hall of the town. At the hour appointed the conscripts assemble; or in place of the absent, their parents, tutors, delegates, and respondents. The business is performed in the presence of the municipal council, under the presidency of the mayor; and if it is a chief town, the prefect or subprefect assists. The spectator beholds youths, conducted by their parents, overwhelmed with the weight of their calamity; he discovers sometimes mothers at the point of despair, who have accompanied all that they hold most dear in the world. A mournful silence reigns in the hall; not even a breath is heard; a sigh occasionally bursts. The mayor makes a short harangue; the name of each conscript is called; the conscript advances; he stretches out his hand to the urn; the destiny of many is included with his; he draws his own. This lottery of human beings is a horrible game! The prefect who is present, born in another department, has a son, on whom, perhaps, at the same moment, the lot is passing at a distant part of the empire. The subprefect, born in the same department, perhaps also the mayor, behold their sons among the conscripts assembled; the son of the mayor touches the lot, the voice of the father trembles, his eye overflows; nevertheless he must pronounce a speech to inspire courage into the young soldiers. A third part, perhaps, of the members of the municipal council assembled have their sons among the conscripts. The sentiments of nature must remain silent before imperious necessity. The business being finished, the mayor first must raise his voice, with "Long live Bonaparte!" and the military music strikes up a march.—The functionaries present have not always the means of providing substitutes for their sons on whom the lot has fallen. After the drawing the substitutes are negotiated for. The conscripts who have drawn the first numbers are the first who must enter the ranks; the holders of the higher numbers have somewhat of a better prospect. But on the very day after the drawing the series of the numbers is often changed; unexpected cases, desertion chiefly, make large deficiencies. A son had hoped to draw a number which would exempt him from service; the lot having fallen upon him, his parents wish to find a substitute; the expence would ruin them; the son chuses rather to abscond; his parents will pay less by paying the fine, and he hopes one day to see them again, by a change of government. On the frontiers particularly the desertion is sometimes enormous; out of a hundred conscripts eighty have been found deserters: such has frequently been the case towards the frontiers of Germany, as also towards the frontiers of Italy; nor have examples been wanting towards those of Spain. I have seen the ninety-second, one of the last of the reserve, obliged to make part of the active army. Young men, who often had no other resource in a foreign country than the profession of arms, have preferred a harder service to that of France, from aversion to the cause which it supports; and the French conscription has often furnished a rich harvest to the Austrian army.—

‘ In each department there is a council of recruiting, consisting of the prefect, a superior officer of the department, a major appointed by the minister of war, a recruiting captain, some members in merely a civil capacity, and two physicians. They examine each conscript, to ascertain whether he possesses all the qualities requisite for the military service. With respect to height, five feet (5 feet, 5 inches, English,) only are required, and men even shorter are admitted ; if in other respects they have no corporeal defect, and are of a vigorous constitution, they are chosen for the species of light troops, called *voltigeurs* ; those above five feet may serve in the cavalry or artillery.—Desertions frequently happen on the road ; and the substitutes are almost always the deserters. Having at their departure received the premium from those for whom they have engaged to serve, they disappear with it ; and the unfortunate conscript whom they represent is again obliged to find a man for the place which has become vacant. The substitute is at the risk of the principal till he has actually joined his colours ; it is not till then that the government takes cognisance of the delegated recruit.—The conscripts who do not obey the calls and public summonses to appear are declared *refractory conscripts*. That revolutionary term, with all its recollections, and all its terrors, is put in force anew, and revolutionary proceedings are energetically employed. Mayors, officers of police, *gendarmes*, have orders to suspect, to interrogate, and to arrest. All, with the description of the individual in their pocket, must hunt for the *refractory conscripts*, making sure of all who have the appearance of being the age of the conscription.’—

‘ You are travelling. Presently you are stopped. A numerous crowd obstructs the high-way. The clanking of chains—plaintive voices—an escort of cavalry—naked swords—men pale and emaciated, heads shaven, hideously dressed, dragging fetters and cannon-balls, form a shocking procession on the road. Of what atrocious crime, great God ! are these miserable wretches guilty, to be reduced to so abject and deplorable a condition ?—They are refractory conscripts and deserters, who, collected in the *dépôts* in a department, are transported to a fortress in the interior.—As soon as seized they are carried under a safe escort to the prisons of the district nearest at hand. There they suffer hunger and pain, because the district which ought to subsist them has not wherewithal to satisfy their wants. Happy are they who by selling the clothes from their backs are enabled to alleviate the miseries of their situation. The district must furnish a dress hideous, both in colours and make, of the coarsest materials, resembling that worn by the galley convicts. On a parade day the arrested conscript is brought out before the troop which happens to be at the place standing under arms. The law and his sentence are read to him ; and he is declared *unworthy to serve*. He is stript of his garments ; his head is shaved ; he is disfigured by a dress contrived to resemble partly that of a monk under penance, partly that of a convict in the galleys ; he has large wooden shoes put on his feet, and a chain, terminated by a heavy ball which he must drag after him, is riveted to his leg. In this grotesque equipment Bonaparte has contrived to unite all that is calculated to frighten the imagination of a Frenchman.

man, in as far as it presents the exterior of a criminal worthy of the most ignominious punishment; he has combined in it all that is calculated to humble military pride, and torture the sense of shame by attaching to it the marks and forms which characterize a penitent monk. It is in this costume, and assembled in convoys, that the condemned conscripts are conveyed through France towards the fortresses, where they are employed on public works. Amid sentiments and feelings such as these, you hear, too, the gazettes harranguing upon the ardour and enthusiasm with which the French youths devote themselves to the conscription. The following is a sample taken at random from the journals of Paris. An article, dated Paris, 29th December, 1805, says, "The lists of the conscription are begun to be formed in all the departments: every where the ardour exhibited by the youths is so great, that the operations relative to this new levy will be all over by the 5th of January."

The French government, afraid of discovering the extent to which the Conscription is detested, make it a rule to avoid publishing the number of sentences awarded against refractory conscripts, or their parents: but that their number is very great we may be assured, as well from what has occasionally transpired as from the fatal severity of the system. None of its provisions speak of the duration of the service, nor fix a day for its cessation. No soldier can receive a discharge during war; and to this hour, says M. Faber, not a conscript has returned home by discharge. A call to the conscription is therefore considered as a call to death. — Its indirect evils in augmenting the number of paupers, and in raising wages without increase of employment, are of the most serious nature: yet its future execution is not likely to be relaxed, and will be greatly facilitated by the remarkable improvement which took place in the registration of births, marriages, and deaths in France, in the year 1792. The formation and custody of these registers were then taken out of the hands of the clergy, and committed to civil functionaries. All religious denominations, without regard to their creed, are subject to the state-registration, which alone has force in law, and determines the property and the rights of citizens. Of this register, two copies are kept; one in the archives of each mayorship, the other in the archives of the prefecture. The insertions are made close after each other, and without blanks; no abbreviations are admitted, and no dates are entered in figures. Every omission, or breach of the rules, is punished; and this institution, one of the most useful products of the Revolution, is the best managed of all the branches of the public administration. No minister of religion dares, under a severe penalty, to perform a religious ceremony, until the parties have satisfied him that they have fulfilled the acts of registration.

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We conclude the subject of the Conscripts with a short extract on their mode of discipline :

‘ They do not form separate corps. Each district of a subprefecture is destined, during five years, for the recruit of the same corps of the army ; the officers of these corps reside in the district, and conduct the conscripts of their department to the depôt. They are there taught to march, to turn to the right and left, to handle the musket. They learn to observe the word of command. The apprenticeship is very superficial ; its duration depends on circumstances, and on the occasion the battalions have to be completed. It is six weeks, a month, or fifteen days ; sometimes the conscripts are sent directly to the army, and are drilled in a hurry in the regiment during the moments of inaction. They are taught merely what war requires, and war will perfect. Thus initiated, they are incorporated in the companies in the places marked by their size. The leaders of their file, their right and left hand men, serve as examples to them ; they march as they do, and practice supplies the defect of instruction. The conscripts enter on pay as soon as they are collected together in their department. They are paid on the road and at the depôt, as all the French soldiers are, that is to say, very irregularly. The dress is the last object which is thought of. Having received the cartouch-box and firelock, they commonly spend their time at the depôt in the ordinary clothes which they bring with them. If on the road they pass through a country, either conquered or belonging to an ally, it is compelled to clothe them. Of all existing soldiers the French have the least advantage in point of appearance, as it respects either size, dress, equipment, or the handling and managing of his arms. A regiment of French infantry which has just been filled up with conscripts presents no uniformity to the eye : with the exception of the grenadiers, it has only the appearance of a number of raw recruits, picked up in haste, and huddled together without choice and without order. The conscript practises the trade of a soldier before he has learned his air. They are the soldiers of Louis the Fourteenth and Frederic the Second in the last years of their wars.’

The last chapter of M. Faber’s work is occupied with an account of what is still called *the National Guard* of France ; that is, the whole of the male population, from twenty to sixty years of age, who are liable to be called forth at the command of government. It was in the autumn of 1805, on notice of the preparations of Russia and Austria, that this measure was last agitated in the Senate, when Bonaparte was empowered to put in arms whatever part of the population he chose. The chief object of this enactment was to strike awe into foreign powers, by a demonstration of the vast resources of France. The levy was ordered in the frontier-departments only, and in these was very imperfectly carried into effect, Bonaparte being fully aware that it is an army, and not a popular levy, which

which guards the throne of a despot. The part of the national levies which is permanent consists of a *company of reserve* for each department, maintained at the expence of the department and the municipalities, for the purpose of guarding the houses of the prefects, the courts of justice, and other public establishments. These companies amount in all to a force of 15,000 men, completely equipped, and officered in general by retired soldiers. Guards of honour, to receive Bonaparte in his circuits, have likewise been partially formed, and are directed to consist of young men of respectable family.

On this subject of the national guard, M. Faber is disposed to enlarge, with a considerable share of that exaggeration which forms, it must be acknowledged, a characteristic feature of the book, and should induce us to admit its evidence with some allowance and hesitation. He dwells on the circumstance of millions being enrolled in the lists, and of Bonaparte's rage to make all his subjects soldiers, as if it were a perfectly practicable matter to provision such multitudes in the field. Enough occurred among ourselves, in the beginning of the present war, to enable us to form an estimate of the efficacy of unlimited volunteering; and to satisfy us that Bonaparte could not resort to a more effectual method of clogging the developement of his resources.

Another point in which we dissent from M. Faber regards the state of the population of France; which, notwithstanding all his arguments, and notwithstanding the havock of twenty years of war, we are disposed to believe is on the increase since the Revolution. The lists, which are now in the course of publication in this country, will shew how considerable has been *our* increase during ten years in which so many of our countrymen have been prevented from raising families, and will set in a striking light the power of the principle of population in every country which enjoys internal tranquillity.

A third point, in which we are at issue with this author, has reference to the question of giving aid from a national treasury to local works, such as roads and canals. In censuring Bonaparte's failure in such aids, M. Faber takes for granted that it is good policy to confer them from the public funds, and unwise as well as cruel to assess the expence on the district. In our view of the matter, all such works are unadvisable when they do not pay themselves; that is, when they do not afford to the undertakers a return equivalent to the ordinary profit of trade. When this is not the case, they can be regarded as nothing else than absorptions of productive capital; and it would have been much better for the country, notwithstanding the imposing sound of public utility, to have refrained from them.

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We censure Bonaparte, therefore, not for withholding the national money, but for delinquencies of a different kind ; for his hypocrisy in pretending to give it, and next for the folly of issuing government-orders for enterprizes which ought always to be left to the free calculation of individuals. This brings us to the consideration of another topic, which we have more than once impressed on our readers, and in which we are happy in receiving the support of M. Faber ; we mean, Bonaparte's utter ignorance of the principles of civil government. 'The new principles,' says M. Faber, p.193. 'which he has taken for the foundation of his edifice are invariably the worst that could be adopted. This is proved by every branch of the civil polity of France,—by her finances, her commerce, her manufactures and her agriculture :—destined from his childhood for the military profession, he had neither call nor opportunity to acquire a knowledge of civil administration ; and since he seized the helm of the state, his time has been too much occupied to allow him to supply the deficiency of his early education.'

With respect to another question of great importance, the impolicy of the Conscription, it is not clear that M. Faber is inclined to carry his views so far as we do. He expatiates very forcibly on the discontent which it excites towards Bonaparte, and declares that, if any general insurrection take place in France, it will proceed from this source. 'For whom, say millions of families, are we kept in such suffering and disquietude?—for a foreigner who plays a most cruel game with the blood of Frenchmen?'—but M. Faber does not go the length of pronouncing conscription to be a less advantageous mode of raising an army than voluntary levy ; and many of our countrymen are disposed, with Bonaparte, to consider this engine as the main-spring of his power. To us, however, it has always appeared that, in a soldier, nothing can counterbalance the want of good will ; while, in a country, no mode of enlistment can be more pernicious than that which perpetuates the existence of alarm, and drives so many thousands into exile. If we attend to the vast population of France, an annual levy of 60,000 or 80,000 men does not appear extraordinary ; and if we reflect, in addition, on the military temper of its inhabitants, we shall be inclined to call it a moderate proportion. In short, after the example of what was done under Louis XIV. and Louis XV., we need not hesitate to say that a number equal to the above, or greater, might be annually raised by voluntary enlistment ; and in that case, how much does Bonaparte lose by persisting in his present method. The true way of obtaining soldiers is to make their profession worth following ; to open to the meritorious the road to promotion ; and to give an
extended

extended application to the principle of limited service. Were these and some additional regulations carried into effect in our army, there would be no more want of soldiers, and no more necessity for cajoling them to enlist, than there is in regard to labourers for any mechanical profession. An end would thus be put to the incalculable mischief of recruiting by bounties, and to the equally serious evils of desertion : while all this might be attained with a much smaller increase of pay than may at first appear necessary ;—the attractions of a military life, its honour, and the prospect of advancement, serving, among a free and spirited people, as a powerful counterpoise to a deficiency of emolument and to the hazards of battle.

Enough has appeared, from the extracts which we have made, to satisfy our readers that M. Faber has given circulation to many “truths ungrateful” to his former master. Although we were previously acquainted with most of the particulars contained in the volume, yet some part of the work possesses the attraction of novelty, and a greater part has the advantage of animated and eloquent description : but it has unfortunately happened that occasional success in pathetic writing has tempted the author to indulge too frequently in it, and often lays him open to the charge of declamation. Of this excess, the conclusion of the eighth and of the tenth chapters afford rather amusing examples. These ebullitions are unfortunately at variance with perspicuity and precision ; and the reader who opens the book in quest of particular facts will turn over page after page of general effusion, before he attains, if he ever attains, the object of his search. After this comment, it will excite little surprize in our readers to be told that M. Faber is greatly deficient in the arrangement of his materials ; and that his work appears to have been written straight forwards without the advantage of a previous plan. References are also made to passages which are not in the present Volume, (as in page 37. to a chapter on Finance,) from which we are in hopes that the second volume is complete, and may find its way to England. On the whole, although we cannot join with Mr. Walsh in all his encomiums on M. Faber, nor adhere to all the representations of the latter, we are sufficiently interested in the production to be glad of the present portion of it, and to be anxious for the second.

The translation partakes, in some respects, of the inequality of the original ; several parts appearing to be better executed than others. Some Scotisms also occur. The chapter on the Conscription seems to be rendered with accuracy ; while, in the preceding part of the volume, we meet with such Gallicisms as (p. 46) ‘*impress*,’ for *stamp* ; page 53. ‘*jealous of*,’ for *desirous of* ; and p. 111. ‘*Paris has a throne in its midst*,’ &c.

ART. VII. *A popular Treatise on the Natural and Artificial Causes of Disease in general, with the Means of Prevention, and Rules for Diet, Regimen, &c.* By John Robertson, (late of Edinburgh) Author of the Practical Treatise on the internal Use of Cantharides,* &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Highley. 1811.

WE are rather at a loss to know in what class to place Mr. Robertson's work. It is said to be intended for popular use; yet many parts of it would be both uninteresting and unintelligible to an unprofessional reader: while, on the contrary, a large portion of it is occupied with that species of commonplace matter, which would appear intolerably tedious to any one who had advanced beyond the very elements of science. It has been observed that amphibious animals, or such as are furnished with organs that may be used for different purposes, seldom possess that perfection of structure which those display who are more limited in their powers; a duck neither swims as well as a fish, nor walks as well as a land animal; and in the same manner, that species of publication, the object of which is to afford instruction to readers of all descriptions, is commonly ill-adapted for any, — it is too learned for the illiterate, and too simple for the learned. Notwithstanding the title, such a kind of amphibious production does that which is before us appear to be.

The subject of this work is indeed sufficiently important, and might have afforded a fund of useful information for either class of readers. A popular treatise on the general sources of disease, and on the regulations which ought to be observed in the common intercourses of life for the preservation of health, if so drawn up as to avoid all intricate discussions and doubtful hypotheses, might be made very interesting. On the other hand, a not less interesting treatise might have been written for the use of the medical practitioner; which should contain an abstract of the different opinions that have been embraced on these topics, and a statement of the conclusions that may be legitimately deduced from them. It is a subject on which we have a great mass of ill-digested matter, and facts of doubtful authority, and which especially stands in need of this species of purification. Whatever opinion, however, we may individually form of the character of Mr. R.'s Treatise, it professes to be for popular use, and according to this standard we must estimate its merits.

An introduction of considerable length is occupied in exhibiting the miseries which are attendant on the union of disease and poverty; and, probably for the purpose of enhancing the importance of his undertaking, the author seems to have spared

* See Rev. Vol. lvii. N. S. p. 87.

no pains in clothing his description in the most ornamented dress. It is written in a style of flowery declamation, abundantly intermingled with scraps of poetry, and interspersed with moral reflections : but neither the declamation nor the poetry, nor the moralities had the effect of awakening in our minds any sympathy for the sufferers. In fact, the whole has a character of triteness, which effectually prevents it from making any impression on the feelings. In quoting the following specimen of Mr. Robertson's descriptive powers, we conceive that he cannot object to our announcing it as a favourable sample, because very nearly the same description occurs in another part of the work :

‘ Though this most awful extreme of contagious fever is not very prevalent in this country, it is still fatal to thousands in the obscure and loathsome retreats of poverty. There, every circumstance refines the poison, prepares the victim, and hurls him to rapid dissolution ; unheeded by the affluent, the gay, and even the humane ; and too often avoided by the timid and the ignorant.

‘ He lies, then, in a bed which would produce disease even to the healthy, absorbed in his own foetid and contagious perspiration, till he either dies or accidentally recovers. His few attendants, or his helpless family, though unaffected by such diseases, are, from other causes, perhaps equally miserable. And what must be their danger, as well as misery, who consume the day in the same cell, almost in contact with the sick, and waste the night on the same pallet of disease and wretchedness ?

‘ Let even the hardened and unfeeling, or the thoughtless and voluptuous, enter for a moment these receptacles of pestilence and death ! Let them breathe the noisome vapours ! Let them hear the cry at once of want and pain, the incoherent mutterings of wild delirium, the groans of the expiring, and the wailings of the miserable survivors ! Let them behold the sick, the dying and the dead !

‘ One would at least expect the infant to be exempt from this accumulation of wretchedness, and would hope that the bosom of its mother might remain to soothe it ; but—the tears of the mother drop upon her infant ;—her bosom is collapsed ;—its vessels are exhausted ;—the fountain of life is dried up. What can the wish of the mother, —what can her filial love,—what can the hoarse scream of her thirsty infant,—what can its vain suction effect ?

‘ On the same bed, perhaps, are children shivering in the cold, and burning in the hot stage of fever ; one raving in delirium, frantic or stupified with despair ; another breathing his last, or extended a disfigured and loathsome corpse. Probably some squalid daughter of poverty, careless of life, may administer the produce of rags in pawn ; —possibly some friend of humanity, absorbed in pity, and defying danger, may pour out the antidote, whilst he inhales the poison.’

The plan which the author proposes to pursue is laid down with a superfluous degree of minuteness. He presents us with
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three books; the first of which is divided into two parts, and the first part into three chapters, containing an account of the causes of disease, and the means of obviating these causes: the first chapter giving the natural and the second relating the artificial causes. The natural causes are arranged under the separate heads of soil, climate, and situation; and the artificial causes under those of the construction of houses, occupations, modes of living, and manners in general. The second part contains two chapters, 'in the first of which are explained plans of police, by which diseases arising from the foregoing causes may be prevented; the second includes the practical methods by which the diseases themselves may be remedied.' The 2d and 3d books are intended to be purely practical, the former of them applying to Edinburgh, and the latter to London, the principles which are supposed to have been detailed in the first book.—We are great advocates for method and arrangement, but too much of it produces the same bad effect as the want of it; the attention is distracted, and the reader is puzzled by his attempts to unravel the intricate path which has been marked out for him. It will not be expected from us to follow the author step by step through all his divisions and subdivisions, and in each particular case to shew where he is defective and where redundant, where his reasoning is fallacious, and where his conclusions are erroneous. It must be sufficient to remark that we have observed all these faults to exist, and neither unfrequently nor in small degree. He betrays a prevailing vagueness in the manner of treating all the subjects, that gives the work the air of a schoolboy's exercise, which it was necessary to make of a certain length, and to spin out to a certain number of pages, rather than the air of the production of a man of science, who had been desirous of procuring the most correct information, and of communicating it in the best manner to his readers.

Although the bulk of this treatise consists of materials brought together from a variety of sources, we meet occasionally with something which assumes the air of originality: but we fear that this originality will be found to be the only merit of those parts. The following remarks on Contagion will, we imagine, justify our opinion:

'In considering the development of contagious poisons, it must excite astonishment, that a particle so small, as frequently to be invisible, should so rapidly derange all the functions of life in a person of the most robust constitution. Should we not experience the same feeling on perceiving those inflammations without fire, those combustions without heat, those sudden instances of disorganization, and all the phenomena produced by the oxygenated muriatic acid,

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were we not acquainted with its composition, before observing its effects? And should we not conclude, that both operate on similar principles?

Contagions and poisons may in reality consist of the same materials, varying but in their proportions, or in some unimportant circumstance; and the virus of syphilis, small-pox, and measles, and of the spider, rattle-snake and other venomous creatures, as being all of animal production, may chiefly consist of azote and oxygen, combined perhaps with some other ingredient: there is also high probability that marsh-miasmata will be found little else than a similar compound. The ichor of cancer and other corroding ulcers is very probably pretty much of the same thing. This idea at least seems to be countenanced by what we observe in the syphilitic virus, which when applied to a secreting surface, causes gonorrhœa; to a dry one chancre; to a glandular surface, bubo, &c.; and it is probable, that a similar exciting cause may, by operating upon the constitution, in one way produce continued, in another, remittent fevers; which in reality differ from each other less in their causes, than in the particular part of the body to which this cause is applied.'

Our medical readers will at once perceive how much false analogy, how much insufficient argument, and how much gratuitous assumption, these few sentences discover.

Now these volumes profess to be written for popular use; and so far as the removal of disease depends on any arrangements which enter into the common concerns of life, directions for this purpose form an essential part of them: but the author does not rest here; he proceeds to lay down plans for the treatment of particular diseases; he even enters into controversial discussions respecting these diseases; and this he does in regard to some diseases of the most critical nature, — such, for example, as hydrocephalus. Yet we have no hesitation in saying that any person who gives popular directions for the cure of hydrocephalus is doing an injury to society. If, however, in this part, Mr. Robertson is stepping beyond the proper limits of his subject, in others he is as much within the line of propriety; some of the observations being as ridiculously trifling, as others are hurtful from a contrary cause. If the different parts could be amalgamated together, or if they could unite and form a chemical mixture, possibly the resulting compound might be of about the proper consistence. Thus, a few pages after the popular directions for treating hydrocephalus, pneumonia, dropsy, &c. the author kindly informs us that literary men are too apt to lead sedentary lives, and that they ought to use exercise; that studying by candle-light is bad, because the candles vitiate the air and injure the eyes; and, lastly, that it is necessary to wash the feet and cut the nails.

ART. VIII. *Essay on the Military Policy and Institutions of the British Empire.* By C. W. Pasley, Captain in the Corps of Royal Engineers. Second Edition. Part I. 8vo. pp. 533. 12s. Boards. Lloyd. 1811.

THAT a book should arrive at a second edition, before we have had an opportunity of making our report of it, is in itself some evidence that public curiosity has been attracted by it, even though its excellence should not thus be absolutely and decisively established. Such has been the case with Captain Pasley's *Essay*; and though we shall by no means find ourselves justified in ascribing to it that general merit which might have served to produce or to account for an extensive circulation of the volume, we must allow that it is creditable to the author as an evidence of his ability and his reading, and of the manner in which he applies his spare time and his thoughts. He must permit us, however, to differ from him widely on the chief principles which he maintains; and truly do we regret that, even while we are writing*, the complexion of continental affairs warrants us in adopting less sanguine views than those by which his opinions are guided. We confess, indeed, that we are not prepared to adopt and to inculcate such *energetic* maxims as he suggests, with regard either to the domestic or the foreign policy of this empire. Our readers shall see what these maxims are, on a subject on which they must feel interested, and shall judge whether they can embrace them with the author, or demur to them with us.

Captain P. informs us that he originally intended, 'after three or four preliminary chapters,' to proceed directly to treat of our military institutions; reserving the developement of the principles of the martial policy and the offensive system of warfare which, he conceives, we ought to pursue, for the second part of his essay: but that, on re-consideration, he deemed it advisable to change this arrangement, and to make the latter precede the former, as being by far the most important subject of the two. He says 'that more than a hundred pages were printed off before he determined on this alteration;' and for this reason he intreats the reader's excuse for the want of due method in arranging the component parts of the introductory chapter, which 'explains the whole of his plan, as well as the principles on which he writes.'

* Even, we say, 'while we are writing,' how are all the strong holds of Spain falling into the hands of the French invaders! Montserrat itself, which we have just been describing, (see p. 362.) and which seemed to be rendered so impregnable by nature alone, has been successfully stormed by the active and enterprising enemy.

The Essay is divided into twelve chapters, and proves the writer to be a warm and strenuous advocate for carrying on offensive warfare against all our enemies; for our manfully wresting (or attempting to wrest) from Bonaparte all the territories which he has acquired or over-run, and even *destroying the French empire itself*; for planting the British flag on the Appennines, or on the plains of Champagne, with the same undaunted hearts with which we now display it on the ocean; for conquering Holland, the Netherlands, &c. &c.; for seizing on Sicily and other large islands, in order to convert them into colonies or provinces of our own; and for throwing the gauntlet to Bonaparte, and challenging him to meet us hand to hand on the Ebro, the Elbe, the Loire, or indeed in any part of the known world! The Captain contends that nothing short of such daring exploits, and brilliant conquests, for the purpose of setting our population on a footing with that of the enemy, can preserve to us our present superiority at sea; and he encourages us to engage in such perilous enterprizes by confidently promising us ultimate success, if we act with perseverance and vigour, although he allows that our adversary's authority extends over more than five individuals to our one. He reprobates what he calls our present narrow and contracted system of military operations, which is not calculated for the *recovery of Hanover*, nor for drawing the French from the Baltic and the northern parts of Germany; and he positively insists on it that nothing can save us from slavery and destruction, but our pursuing immediately, as our enemies have uniformly done both before and since the Revolution, the martial policy of the Romans. He seems to be of opinion that, like them, we should for our own safety adopt a regular plan of offensive war, which we should steadily and unremittingly pursue till we shall not be in danger from any other country; and he thinks that, instead of sending small or even moderate armies to the continent, we ought to send an overwhelming force, in order to enable us, with or without the assistance of our allies, to beat our foes almost always and every where.

Captain P. takes it for granted 'that this country is by no means at present in a state capable of resisting a powerful invasion; that nothing but our naval superiority has saved us from being at this moment a province of France;' and that the sovereignty of the ocean must be yielded up by Great Britain to the Continent of Europe, unless new measures of military policy be adopted, in less than the short period of thirty years. Before he proceeds, however, to point out particularly the necessity of our carrying on offensive or external and continental warfare, till we accomplish the overthrow of the French empire,

Captain Pasley gives what he calls a 'comparative view of the force and resources of it and the British empire; with reflections arising from the subject in regard to the probable decay of our commerce, manufactures, and naval power.' As to the first of these topics, he seems to be conscious that he is not competent to the proper discussion of it, and therefore declines 'involving himself in a labyrinth of financial calculations.' He does not appear even to know the *data* from which alone the relative degrees of absolute force in different nations can with any sort of accuracy be estimated, and therefore unavoidably draws erroneous conclusions. The absolute force of the French empire, compared with that of the British, may be regarded as in the direct ratio of the number of inhabitants and the quantity of taxes taken together in the former, to the number of inhabitants and the quantity of taxes taken together in the latter. As to the *probable* decay of our commerce and manufactures, his prediction is unfortunately too well founded on actual events.

Captain P. observes, (p. 16.) that 'the five grand and leading points to be considered between nations at war are, their population, their revenue, their means of rearing seamen, the energy of their executive governments, and the spirit and patriotism of their people.' Now it is evident that one of these grand points is applicable only to maritime states. He ought also to have taken other circumstances into consideration; such as the industry, circulation, and particularly the local situations of, and the spaces occupied by, their respective degrees of population; for an extensive territory with a thin scattered population, let those who inhabit it be ever so hardy or daring, is but ill calculated for the purposes of conquest, and still worse for those of defence: since the power of resistance by a given number of men must, *ceteris paribus*, be always in the inverse ratio of the space which they occupy.

In the III^d chapter, the author treats of colonies, attempts to estimate the importance of various colonial and insular dependencies, and concludes that the greatest insular empires which can be formed would be incapable of long preserving a naval superiority over the continent of Europe. He is of opinion that our foreign possessions in general add but little to our strength, and that some of them even tend to diminish it; and he highly disapproves of our conquering or taking possession of little islands and paltry fortresses. Many of our foreign territories, it must be confessed, involve this country in expences for their protection and support, which far exceed the amount of any benefit that we derive from them; and, which is still worse, in time of war they greatly lessen our disposable
force

force at home. Witness our North American possessions, and particularly our territories in the East; which, under the operation of an exclusive charter, and the management of an avaritious and ambitious Company, have drawn us into an expenditure on their account that is little short of forty millions, from which the country can never expect to reap any advantage.

In Chapters IV. V. and VI. the author considers martial policy; which he defines to be, 'the spirit and views with which war may be conducted.' This is but a vague definition. Having censured our present system of military operations as by far too contracted, he maintains that we must either adopt immediately a new one, or perish: he is an avowed enemy to subsidies and coalitions; and he thinks that we might derive a great accession of strength from aggrandising ourselves on the Continent, being of opinion that continental conquests are more advantageous than insular acquisitions:

* If the principles (he says) laid down in chapter third be admitted, we ought, if we find France herself unassailable, to conquer in Holland, in the Netherlands, and in the north of Germany: since continental are in general more beneficial than insular conquests, and the nearer home that we can act, the better. But as circumstances may not always directly favor our wishes, we must watch opportunities of acting with constant energy upon plans previously digested, in order to effect our great object, that of diminishing the power of our enemy, and of increasing our own. We must assist our allies when we cannot conquer for ourselves; we must attack islands, when it may not appear convenient to attack the continent; but we must never neglect to employ our arms in vigorous external warfare somewhere, although, if we had been free to choose, we might have fixed upon another scene of action.'

Some good remarks occur at p. 179. et seq. on the want of information that has often been found most prejudicially to operate in our army, on continental expeditions; particularly on the deficiency of geographical knowledge, and of a public collection of maps and charts, which should be served out as occasion requires.

The fifth chapter treats on the war now carrying on in Spain, viewed according to the principles of a vigorous martial policy.

Here, Captain P. contends, we should act as principals and not as allies, as he says we ought to do in every war that has the dismemberment of the French empire for its object. We shall be happy if a short time does not produce events sufficient to convince most of our countrymen that we are already acting too much as principals, both in Spain and in Portugal. The author thinks that we ought to employ an overwhelming

overwhelming British force in the former, conceiving it to be the most favourable country in the world as a theatre of action for humbling the power of Bonaparte : — but, if the prosecution of the war for some time, even with the troops which we already have there, may produce an unpleasant effect on our currency and finances, what might be the consequence to both of our sending thither 160 or 200 thousand men, if we had them to send ?

Chapter VIII. discusses the necessity of mixing politics with war, because a vigorous martial policy insures success in diplomacy, and on the impolicy of granting subsidies to foreign powers. The first of these propositions is illustrated by the conduct of the Romans, whom the writer endeavours to exhibit to us as patterns for imitation ; and, as to the last, he deems it incomparably better to employ native troops than a mercenary or subsidized force.

In the IXth chapter, Captain Pasley assigns what he calls reasons for our acting offensively in a war with France ; mentions the necessary preliminary steps ; and treats of the impolicy and injustice of replacing foreign Princes unconditionally in their former dominions, after we have obtained possession of them by conquest. He says it is of great importance to us to lop off the countries on which the power of Bonaparte is principally founded, and either to establish their permanent independence or to add them to our own empire. We should therefore, he observes, as that ruler acts in a very tyrannical and oppressive manner even in France, and most insufferably so in his other dominions, ‘ attack him, whilst we have the power, at home, when he is weak and detested, and strike at the fountain-head of his resources, as soon as possible, and with all the vigour of which our own will admit.’ We are inclined to think that most people will regard such observations as vague, and as bordering on extravagance. Captain P. should make it appear that Bonaparte is either ‘ weak’ or ‘ detested’ in France, before he unscrupulously ventures on such an assertion. He seems to be aware of strong objections to our carrying the war directly into France, and that an attack on that country might be precarious : but he roundly asserts that ‘ nothing can be more tempting to our arms, or can afford us fairer hopes of a successful issue, than the other continental countries either conquered by the French or in a state of vassalage under the French empire.’ Yet in the very next page, as if forgetting these countries, he tells us ‘ that it does not seem to him adviseable, that we should at the present moment, divide our force by making an attack upon the French any where, except in the Spanish peninsula : but that we should

lose

lose no time in preparing ourselves, and in forming our plans for taking advantages of new opportunities hereafter, which will most certainly present themselves.' Here, then, he seems to be sensible that we have sufficient employment now in that peninsula; and we think that he judges rightly in leaving Holland, the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, &c. to themselves for the present. He reprobates, on every occasion, what he terms our *timid martial policy and evacuating system*; and he speaks of Walcheren, Danish Zealand, and Sicily, in the following terms:

'Had we kept possession of Walcheren, the navigation of the Scheldt would have been rendered, in a great measure, useless to the enemy; any armament which he could have assembled in that river, for the invasion of England, would have been liable to an attack, on our part, under circumstances the most disadvantageous to him; and we there had the finest point from whence to attempt, not merely the destruction of ships and gun-boats, but the permanent conquest of Holland, a thing which we ought always to have in view.

'As a military position, it appears to me, that Walcheren would have been, by the assistance of a flotilla, almost as defensible as Gibraltar; nor would it have required a much greater garrison than that fortress does, in time of war with Spain*. Under our management it might again have been the point, from which better laws were to be expected by the people of Holland; and, certainly, considered in a naval, commercial, and military point of view, it was invaluable. Whether the loss of men by its climate, acting upon a small garrison, not exposed to hardships, provided with proper conveniences, and having all possible precautions taken to prevent sickness amongst them, would have been serious, so serious at least as to counterbalance all its advantages, I do not pretend to decide†.

* * If nothing had yet appeared before the public, in support of this opinion, which I gave when examined before the House of Commons, as an evidence, upon the inquiry into the late expedition to the Scheldt, I should think myself bound to explain it. But the author of the Narrative of that expedition, has (in his 2d edition) made observations upon the strength of Walcheren, which appear to me very judicious, and to which I refer. The plan, upon which he says Flushing might have been defended, is similar to one which was actually transmitted to Lord Chatham by me, for that particular purpose, on the 28th of August, 1809. It happened that no opinion of any officer of rank in the British army, was produced in favour of the strength of Walcheren; but I know that this might have been done. Buonaparte, it afterwards appeared, had ordered Flushing to be defended upon the same principle recommended by me; only that I proposed a partial inundation, which could have done little or no injury to the island: his orders were positive, to lay the whole of it under salt-water.'

† Surely this is an odd way of arguing. It is not discussing a question, but taking only one side it. Rev.

‘ If the loss of Walcheren may be considered, in many respects, a matter of regret, our evacuation of Danish Zealand, in 1807, is a measure which cannot be too deeply lamented. The latter island possesses all the advantages which render the former of importance; whilst it is much superior to it in population and resources, and is blest with a pure salubrious air. Without Zealand, it will be impossible for us to take advantage of any new turn of affairs, in order to carry our arms into Germany; for it would be the height of imprudence, or rather of madness, to leave our enemies, the Danes, in strength behind us. Had we been established in Zealand, at the time when Schill got possession of Stralsund, how easy it would have been for us to have sent a detachment to occupy that city, which, with the adjacent isle of Rugen, affords the most favorable rendezvous for an army destined to act upon the neighbouring part of the continent.

‘ Preparatory, therefore, to any operations in the north of Europe, it is absolutely necessary, that we have possession of the Danish islands, and the sooner we make our attack upon them the better; lest, by deferring this indispensable preliminary measure, we may lose some opportunity of striking a decisive blow against the French power.

‘ To say nothing of the chances of war, which are always doubtful; when we reflect, that a second expedition against Zealand may demand, at least, as great an armament, as that which formerly acted under Lord Cathcart; the loss of the services of so considerable a force, for the period that may be required, before the island can be reduced and settled in a proper state of tranquillity, will be so great a disadvantage to us, in our general operations in other parts of the world, that the impolicy of our evacuating system appears evident. It is probable, also, that the Danes may be prepared to make a much more vigorous defence than their former one: this, however, should be no discouragement to us; for our naval superiority gives us every advantage, that the heart of man could wish for, in insular warfare. Indeed it would be a thing highly desirable for our purposes, that the Danish government would collect all their resources, and assemble every soldier whom they can possibly muster, for the defence of Zealand; because they would thereby give us the noblest opportunity, if we chose to embrace it, of crushing the whole military force of Denmark at one blow.

‘ Our troops in Sicily stand in a commanding position, from whence we ought hereafter to attempt the conquest of Italy. In the mean time, we ought always loudly to announce our intention of so doing, in order, by our threats, to throw our enemy into a state of terror and alarm; as well as to keep the minds of the people of Italy in a constant ferment, to feed their hopes, and to make them look up to us as their future deliverers and protectors. But the first thing necessary, in order to prepare ourselves for the various contingencies of fortune, is to establish ourselves upon a firmer basis in Sicily. Nothing can be more precarious than our present footing in that island.’

With regard to the impolicy of our re-placing foreign Princes in their former dominions, we may defer that question till we

get them into our possession, and have it in our power to dispose of them.

In the Xth chapter, the author endeavours to give us a general view of foreign affairs; and to point out the terms on which we ought to treat with our allies and with our enemies. As to the former of these, the survey is certainly very defective, and in some respects not correct. In regard to the latter, instead of holding out to us any reasonable prospect of peace, Captain Pasley proposes such terms for us to adopt and demand, as are calculated to remove it from our hopes for ever, and to involve us in perpetual warfare. For example, in page 450. he tells us 'that to have a safe, permanent, and honourable peace with France, let the character of its rulers be what it may, will be utterly impossible, until we increase our own strength and diminish that of our enemies so much, by a vigorous system of warfare, as to make them feel that their safety will depend as much on our moderation as upon their own power of resistance;' and in page 451. 'that, should the French offer to make peace with us before we shall have achieved this desirable change, we must refuse to negotiate, unless they previously agree to evacuate the Spanish peninsula and the kingdom of Naples; to renounce maritime affairs for ever; and that Bonaparte send over to England and deliver up to us every vessel belonging to him, which is entitled to carry a pendant, from the three decker to the gun-boat inclusive!!' He concludes the chapter with observing 'that we must remind the French Emperor, that they, whose views a peace would promote, must yield to the terms of those whose interest it is to remain at war; that he being in the former, we in the latter; predicament, it is our business to dictate, his to accept; and that if he does not chuse to submit to our demands, we and our posterity will make war with him and his successors for ever.'—Did the notions and schemes of Don Quixote ever more strongly express the wildness of a distempered imagination? Lord Hawkesbury's celebrated *march to Paris* was nothing to all this!

Chapter XI. defines a military nation to be one that prospers in war: but such a definition is extremely unsatisfactory and indeterminate. The author also asserts that a free government is essential, commerce advantageous, and other arts not prejudicial, to the views of a military nation. He may therefore be very fairly asked the question, if commerce be really advantageous to the views of such a nation, how did the Romans without commerce vanquish the Carthaginians, who were very commercial, and who (he says) in the first and second Punic wars employed abler Generals and brought better soldiers

diers into the field?—and how did the Lacedæmonians, without commerce, acquire an ascendancy over the Athenians, who were a maritime state, and even the sovereignty of Peloponnesus? True it is that the governments of Carthage, Sparta, and Rome, were so far free that each of them consisted of the three simple forms, viz. Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy: but, in the time of Annibal, the Carthaginian constitution had passed its meridian, and was on the decline; whereas that of Rome had just reached its greatest vigour and perfection. Almost every Carthaginian was then actuated by an inordinate desire of gain; and luxury and corruption, introduced by commerce, existed among them to a great degree.—We observe one mis-statement made by Captain Pasley respecting the Carthaginians and the Romans, of which we must take notice. Towards the bottom of page 476. he says ‘that in the first Punic war, Polybius allows that the Carthaginians were in generalship much superior to the Romans, and in perseverance and greatness of mind equal to them; and that in the second they brought better soldiers into the field than their antagonists; and that as a commander Hannibal certainly outshone all his competitors.’ Now Polybius ascribes a superiority in generalship only to one Carthaginian commander, namely, Amilcar Barcas. His words are these: “in the present war, we may remark that the same ardent zeal, the same designs, the same generous perseverance, the same passion for dominion, animated alike both republics. The Roman soldiers, indeed, in all points of bravery and spirit exceeded those of Carthage. But on the other hand the Carthaginian General, both in conduct and in courage, was far superior to any of those commanders that were sent against him. This General was Amilcar, surnamed Barcas, the father of Annibal, who afterward waged war with Rome.”—A number of other Generals were employed during that war by Carthage: but the superior qualities which Polybius ascribes only to one, Captain Pasley has allotted to all of them. Besides, Polybius does not allow Annibal to have been by any means superior to Scipio, and deems him rather inferior.

The title of the last chapter is thus worded:

‘That if we act in future with greater energy and perseverance, Great Britain has a sufficient military force, and a favourable opportunity, for destroying the French empire. Of the despondency hitherto evinced in our operations by land; and of the valuable possessions, which we have constantly abandoned without necessity.’

Here Captain P. contends, without any proof, that if we act against the French empire with an army of 120,000 men, kept up at that establishment, we can accomplish its destruction,

tion, because the French cannot procure a greater force to oppose us on any one part of the continent His observations on this subject are :

‘ To judge of our own force only, in the same manner in which we have judged of that of the French, the two armies of Spain and of Walcheren combined would have amounted to more than seventy thousand men ; but as we have never yet acted upon the vigorous system of the French ; as we keep a large force often in garrison, in places which cannot be attacked ; as we do not, also, seem to have adverted sufficiently to this circumstance, that an attack upon any of our own possessions, whilst the enemy is warmly employed on the continent, would be exceedingly precarious, even if we had not a naval superiority ; but, by reason of that great advantage, any attempt of the kind, at the present moment, is next to impossible ; and, at all events, must lead to the certain destruction of the French troops employed in it ; it appears to me that we may, without the smallest danger to our safety at home or in the colonies, employ 120,000 soldiers upon constant service with the enemy ; which would be by far the most politic mode of carrying on the war, the most saving both of men and of money, and the most effectual for bringing it to a glorious and speedy conclusion. As we might, in this case, always meet the French with equal, often with superior numbers, we might totally abandon the defensive system upon which we have hitherto acted. Instead of offering battle, according to our common practice, we might always attack our enemy ; and instead of allowing him to rally, or to treat with us upon equal terms, after a victory, which we have generally done ; we might push every success to the utmost, and continue the action, or the pursuit, night and day, until we totally destroyed him. And by this system, destroy him we must, unless he chose to throw down his arms ; for such must be the fate of a French army, completely defeated in Spain, in Portugal, in Italy, and in most countries of Europe ; so much are the French detested by the peasants. And as I put no faith in the miracles, which it is said may be effected by the French power, I cannot help thinking, that the destruction of an army would be a greater blow to Buonaparte than to ourselves.

‘ If we set aside the embodied militia of the British islands, which is, at this moment, equal in discipline to most regular armies, adding to it a sufficient proportion of British cavalry and artillery, in order to render it efficient ; we shall thus have an army for home defence, equal in numbers to those with which Buonaparte gained most of his late victories. Add to this the body of more than three hundred thousand well-equipped volunteers and local militia-men, who may be called out, in case of invasion, for the defence of Great Britain in particular ; and it must be allowed, that without a single soldier of the line, native or foreign, we are superabundantly strong in England, much stronger than Spain was, when Buonaparte poured his legions into that country. Hence, with the exception of a proportion of cavalry and artillery, as before observed, and of a few regiments of the line, which it would be prudent to keep in Ireland, in order to insure the internal tranquillity of that island. the whole mass of the regular

regular army of Great Britain is disposable at the present moment. The number of troops usually kept in India need not be increased, and, with the exception of Sicily, all our other colonies are perfectly unassailable.

‘Such being the circumstances of the world, and considering the immense body of regular soldiers kept on constant pay by this country, it does not seem at all necessary that we should increase our national military establishment, which appears strong enough to furnish a force of 120,000 men, for incessant actual service; and this will be amply sufficient to effect the destruction of the French empire, because it is as great a number as Buonaparte has ever been able to act with, in the same part of the continent; and the events of the last two years certainly cannot be supposed either to have increased his resources or his reputation, so as to enable him to display greater energy in future.’

A considerable part of this chapter is occupied with repetitions of what has been said in former parts of the volume, and with farther censures on our *timid evacuating system*.

This young officer, we understand, served for a short time in Spain; and it is singular that he seems to have imbibed on that unsuccessful service the notions of a conqueror. The principal object, which he appears to have had in composing this bulky Essay, is to persuade this country to prosecute the present war till we succeed in enabling the Spaniards and Portuguese to assert their independence, and establish it on a firm foundation,—and also in *overturning* and *destroying* the French empire, as the only means of preserving our naval superiority. We conceive, however, that our ascendancy at sea may be much more easily preserved, than by engaging in crusades for making continental conquests in order to annihilate the power of France. Perhaps all that is necessary for this purpose is to find employment, on the return of peace, for such seamen now in our navy as may then be paid off, to prevent their going to other countries. Let our rulers and legislature only possess wisdom and patriotism enough to abolish all monopolies in commerce, particularly by throwing open the trade to the East Indies, and this object will be sufficiently attained. Were the East India charter rescinded, probably forty or fifty times more of British manufactures would in a short period be annually sent to Asia, than the Company now export; and this would not only afford astonishing relief to our manufacturers, who at present so much require it, but would also make our commercial pursuits subservient, as they ought to be, to the permanent interests and security of the country. This is a consideration paramount to all others whatsoever; and by thus increasing this trade forty or fifty fold, we should make it operate in the same proportion as a fruitful nursery of seamen for manning our navy, on any emergency.

gency. Were this measure adopted, were proper encouragement given to our fisheries, and were due care taken to conciliate the affections of our colonies, we might safely make a peace with Bonaparte to-morrow; and, in case of any future unavoidable rupture with him, we could meet him with a better manned navy*, and set all his attempts at defiance. It is a notorious fact that the small island of Jamaica alone imports from us, every year, commodities and manufactures to more than double the whole amount of those which the India Company send to the East; and does not this fact sufficiently of itself demonstrate the immense advantages of a free and open trade over a monopoly? It is also well known that the United States of North America have nearly three times as much tonnage in the East India trade as our Company employs; and that, without the advantage of large capitals, they supply not only the Spanish and the Portuguese settlements on that continent, but also the whole of the West India islands, and even our own North American colonies, with almost every Asiatic article, which we ourselves ought to provide, and easily might, were the measure adopted which we propose.

This performance contains several statements which, we apprehend, are not strictly correct. We have already taken notice of one, and must content ourselves with pointing out a few more. In page 362. speaking of the Romans after the first Punic war, the author says; 'their detached armies in Sicily and Sardinia obtained full possession of both these islands.' These words would lead any reader to suppose, that the Romans

* On the subject of the manning of our navy, Captain Pasley gives a note which we deem it worth while to copy:

'Most men in this country, and even some foreigners, dazzled by the splendour of our present naval greatness, do actually believe, or are inclined to believe, that superior seamanship is, as it were, the exclusive privilege of Englishmen; and that, by some kind of instinct, men born in the British islands must always be more skilful mariners, than men born in other countries. This supposition is not however justified by the experience either of the present or of former times. The Dutch were formerly our superiors in naval skill. The French and Spaniards, in the American war, were reckoned equal to us in point of seamanship. The Danish and American seamen, even now, are by many considered nearly equal to our own. The Greeks and some other Mediterranean seamen possess a degree of spirit, activity, and skill, which might, if they adopted square-rigged vessels, render them equally fit for the navigation of the ocean, alike respectable and formidable both in commerce and in war. Some amongst the best seamen in His Majesty's navy are at this moment foreigners, as is allowed by several officers, and which every one, who has often been on board British ships of war, may have observed.'

had

had made themselves masters of the whole and every part of these islands by their arms : but King Hiero then possessed Syracuse, and a considerable part of Sicily, and afterward, as an ally of the Romans, sent succours to them in their war against Annibal ; — and as to Sardinia, they did not acquire possession of the whole of it by force of arms. After the first Punic war, the Carthaginian mercenaries there, following the example of those in Africa, revolted, seized the principal towns, and for some time maintained themselves in the island by force : but on quarrelling with the natives, and being driven by them from it, they fled to Italy for refuge. The Romans, though invited by these mercenaries, refused at first to invade Sardinia, and in like manner rejected a proposal made to them by the inhabitants of Utica, who offered to put them in possession of that city : but afterward, about the time at which the inexpiable war was brought to a conclusion by the great abilities and exploits of Amilcar, they resolved to possess themselves of that valuable island. They declared war against the Carthaginians, who shewed some resentment of this measure ; and the latter, being unexpectedly just delivered from a most horrible contest, and unable then to sustain another with the Romans, deemed it prudent to yield to the necessity of the times. They, therefore, for the sake of peace, not only gave up Sardinia, but also consented to pay a tribute of twelve hundred talents.

In the very next sentence, Captain Pasley says, ‘ the Romans seldom or never attempted a diversion in war ;’ and he mentions the expedition of the Proconsul Lævinus against King Philip, as the only instance : expressing his astonishment, at the same time, that this circumstance ‘ has not been noticed by modern authors, who have written expressly on the Roman policy.’ Here is certainly a mistake ; for the Romans had recourse not only to diversions but to every other branch of military contrivance and dexterity. Of many instances that might be adduced, we will mention one. When Annibal invaded Italy, Polybius informs us, the Romans posted twenty thousand Umbrians and Sarsinates, and an equal number of Cœnomani and Venetians, their allies, on the Gallic border, in order to make incursions into the territories of the Boians, and constrain that people to return and defend their own country.

Captain P. also asserts, p. 361., that the Romans generally acted on the overwhelming system in preference to dividing their force. The truth, however, is that they seldom employed in one place more than one consular army, except on extraordinary occasions ; and such an army was much inferior in number to the British troops alone who are now under the command

command of Lord Wellington. No people ever divided their force more, or had greater occasion for such a measure.

In his note at the bottom of page 531. the author does not state correctly the observations of Polybius, Book I. Chap. III., respecting some peculiarities in the Roman character. That imprudent boldness, of which Captain P. speaks in terms of the highest applause, and as fit for our imitation, is mentioned by the sage historian with censure; and he states that, through foolish obstinacy, they lost in one storm nearly 400 vessels.

Captain P. is not even warranted in asserting that 'the Romans for several centuries had a strong prejudice against the sea, to which element they had never trusted themselves.' They could not well be said to be prejudiced against an element of which they had no occasion to make use. They never extended their views beyond the limits of Italy, till they had subdued their neighbours and cemented their alliance with them; and they had no business on the sea before they turned their attention towards the neighbouring island of Sicily. Their first naval expedition was across the strait of Messina; and the adventurous manner in which the Consul Appius crossed that strait, by night, shews that they were not afraid to trust themselves on that element, as most people are at first who are strongly prejudiced against it; for they had not any decked vessels or ships of transport, nor even a single shallop, to carry over their troops: but, having borrowed from the Tarentines, Eleates, Locrians, and Neapolitans, some boats of fifty oars, and a few triremes, they boldly embarked the legions in them, and crossed during the night,

We have thus analyzed the present volume at considerable length, on account of the nature of its discussions, and we had in fact selected farther quotations: but we must stop our hand. No one can deny that it is conceived and written with spirit, and with the advantages of some professional knowledge: but we apprehend that it must be characterized as exhibiting more of the energy of the soldier, than the caution of the statesman or the solidity of the calculator. Like other sanguine projectors, Capt. P. builds away, and does not *count the cost*. -

ART. IX. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Henry Grattan, on the deplorable Consequences resulting to Ireland from the very low Price of spirituous Liquors; pointing out the Causes of the aggravated Increase of those Evils, and intreating his Attention to the Necessity and Means of remedying them.* 8vo. pp. 20. Dublin, Parry.

THE subject discussed in this letter is one of the most interesting in regard to public morals, and consequently in regard

gard to political prosperity, which can occupy the attention of a legislature. The prevalence of habits of intoxication, which has long been the disgrace and affliction of the lower orders of Irish, had received a considerable check during the late stoppage of distillation from grain. The high price of sugar-spirit, and the strangeness of its taste to persons unaccustomed to it, operated as powerful preventives to a consumption of it, during the time which the corn-prohibition lasted, viz. from the middle of 1808 to the early part of the last year; and the efficacy of these causes was increased by the execution of the act against clandestine distillation, by which it was provided that the districts in which private stills were discovered should be subjected to a heavy fine. It was soon found, however, that a very powerful body, the majority of Irish land-holders, raised their voice against the rigid collection of the fines. They had long been accustomed to find a market for their corn among the private distillers, and their patriotism was not proof against a deduction from their rent-roll. Government, on the other hand, had suffered too severely from clandestine distillation to withdraw the fines, without some prospect of an equivalent revenue. Whether either party was actuated by a wish to improve the public morals will be best determined by the nature of the measures which they agreed to adopt; namely, to remove every bar to the establishment of licensed stills in the most remote situations, and to reduce the duty so low as to annihilate the temptation to illicit distillery. The diminution of duty was not less than 75 per cent., which, coupled with the superior cheapness of corn-spirit, suddenly reduced liquor to a rate which put it completely within the reach of that class who are so apt to become its victims. An unfortunate alteration has accordingly been produced in the habits of the lower orders; and the number of prisoners detained for nightly riot, within the police-district of Dublin, has of late increased fourfold. It appears likewise that the average number of patients admitted into the Fever-Hospital in Cork-street, Dublin, during the twenty months when spirits were high, was 85 in each month, and the average number of deaths was 6; whereas, since the reduction of price, the number of admissions has averaged 167, and the number of deaths 14, per month.

In the present letter, the writer expatiates at some length on the immorality of this change of law, and still more on its impolicy. Contrasting the relative situation of British and Irish land-holders, he is led to the conclusion that the increase of industry, of manufactures, and of population, which would follow the establishment of sobriety among the lower orders, would soon afford the country-gentleman in Ireland a much better

better income than that which is now extracted from their miserable habits of intoxication. In regard to revenue, he asserts that none of the private stills in the smuggling-counties have been yet abolished by the new regulations, and that the reduction of spirit-duty was the cause of the late unpopular taxes; whereas, instead of a diminution of revenue from home-made spirits, a considerable increase might have been obtained by a change in the Excise regulations. With reference to the distillers, Mr. Grattan's correspondent maintains that great waste both of fuel and of raw materials is unavoidably incurred under the new plan, in which every other consideration is sacrificed to rapidity; a certain amount of duty being payable monthly on each still, whether a correspondent quantity has been worked off or not;—and this necessity for expedition has led, among other evils, to a public profanation of Sunday, which the infliction of penalties has been found ineffectual to prevent. During the interval of the suspension of corn-distillation, the consumption of beer increased so rapidly that the malt-duty was more than doubled; while, since the reduction of the duty on spirits, it has been found necessary for the preservation of the brewery to grant a drawback on the sale of beer, the effect of which is to deprive the Treasury of above 200,000*l.* a year. Though strong beer in Ireland is thus at half the price which it costs in London, yet, the comparative cheapness of spirits being still greater, the breweries are by no means fully employed. In England, the duty on corn-spirit has been lately raised to ten shillings a gallon; in Ireland, it is not two shillings on liquor of equal strength; and while the retail price of the former exceeds twenty shillings, that of the latter, reckoning by strength, is under seven shillings.

Our readers will hear with concern that this grievous picture failed in producing the desired effect. Mr. Grattan obtained indeed the nomination of a Committee of the House of Commons, for the purpose of inquiring into the measures which might extend the use of beer, and diminish that of spirituous liquors in Ireland: but a majority of the members viewing the subject in the same light with the ministers, their Report went no farther than a declaration strongly unfavourable to the use of spirits, unaccompanied by any recommendations of increase of duty. We wish that the laudable designs of the letter-writer may be forwarded by the publication of his pamphlet; and we are glad to assist, by our report of it, as far as it is in our power, the circulation of his statements and views.

ART. X. *Salmagundi*, or the Whim-Whams and Opinions of Launcelot Langstaff, Esq. and others. Reprinted from the American Edition, with an Introductory Essay and explanatory Notes. By John Lambert. 12mo. 2 Vols. Richardson. 1811.

A LITERARY curiosity is here presented to us. It bears 'much the same relation' (according to the English editor's tolerably correct opinion,) 'to the Spectator and Rambler, as Roderic Random does to Sir Charles Grandison and Pamela.' We may add to this general account that the broad humour of a Smollett is here heightened into absolute caricature, in too many instances; and that this is the prevailing fault of the performance. Those, however, who are delighted with farcical representations of human nature will here find ample food for their appetite: but to us one of the principal attractions of the work appears to consist in its affording a specimen of American literature; and in its describing American customs and manners, as we should conceive, with sufficient correctness. The editor has prefixed an useful essay on these subjects; which, we join with him in hoping, will have a tendency to conciliate the English reader, and to remove some prejudices under which honest John Bull labours with regard to his American brethren. That they also have their prejudices against him is unfortunately too true: but, whatever unwarrantable feelings of this kind may exist, they are confined to political subjects; and full justice is done to the English character throughout America, when the present unhappy topics of dispute are not started. For our literature, the Americans have a sort of filial veneration; and assuredly we ought to feel something of a parental tenderness for their rising spirit of improvement in the Belles Lettres.

Under this impression, we shall proceed to criticize the present publication; which we hail as the fore-runner of a species of writing in America, that above all others tends to cultivate the taste and improve the morals of a nation. Our own debt to Addison and his successors is great indeed. Let it be the aim of American authors to lay their country under similar obligation; and especially let them permit us to advise an attentive study of the last-mentioned essayist in preference to all others. His classical taste, if it had been made an object of imitation by the authors of the present *Salmagundi*, would have prevented many of the errors into which they have fallen. For example, when one of these writers, in drawing the character of Tom Straddle the Birmingham Agent, (*Salmagundi*, Vol. 2d. No. 12. page 27.) informs us, as a proof of this cockcomb's ignorance, that he 'put good store of beads, spike-nails,

and looking-glasses in his trunk, to win the affections of the (American) fair ones, as they paddled about in their bark canoes,' he carries his hyperbolical ridicule to an extent which frustrates his purpose. This over-shooting of the mark is a true test of the young and inexperienced archer. Yet some good hits are discoverable in this same paper; and we are particularly pleased with the cautious delicacy of the author when, to obviate any possible idea that, by this portrait of vulgarity and silliness, he intends to pourtray any English character besides the flippant traveller from our commercial towns, he subjoins the following liberal sentence;— 'the true-born, and true-bred English gentleman is a character I hold in great respect; and I love to look back to the period when our forefathers flourished in the same generous soil, and hailed each other as brothers.' We perfectly agree with the English editor, in the remarks which he makes on this passage. 'This is a liberality of sentiment that does honour to the writers of *Salmagundi*, and renders their production superior to those mean and petty prejudices, which, I am sorry to say, have too frequently disgraced the publications of my own countrymen. It is this liberal and generous feeling which I should be happy to see prevail equally on both sides of the Atlantic; and, since the American writers have been thus ready to offer us their hand, we should be extremely unkind not to shake it heartily in so good a cause.' This is all very proper: but we cannot coincide with the editor in his praise of the whole of this essay, (as we have premised,) and still less in what he says of some others. When, for instance, he tells us that '*caucus*' (an assembly) is the only American word that he has found in these volumes, he evidently forgets the favourite compound term '*slang-whanger*,' (a newspaper-writer,) which occurs in almost every other page; and, indeed, many more vulgarisms, or at best provincialisms, which we forbear to mention, but hope we may not see repeated in similar compositions. The want of a good style is, in truth, unfortunately obvious throughout this publication; and no part of it will offend an English reader so much as the awkward attempts at a display of meagre quotations, and the unclassical mistakes in the quantity and even the meaning of Latin words. How could the ingenious Launcelot Langstaff, Esq., apparently the principal manager of *Salmagundi*, dictate from his 'elbow-chair' such a motto to a paper, as "*Tandem vincitur*" — "*Tandem conquers!*" which, to say nothing of the poverty of the pun, betrays an equally poor acquaintance with the first rudiments of the Latin language? Or, as if these blemishes were not sufficient for one line, how could he add the name of "*Linkum Fidelius*," a miserable latinization

tinization of a piece of English buffoonery, to the above-mentioned motto? The said 'Linkum,' with his cognomen fighting against all analogy, occurs repeatedly: but even that is tolerable, compared to the following scrap of scholarship, of which the compulsory pronunciation, if the verse is to be preserved, would shock the ears of a north-country-schoolboy:

'In a place for *Dī majōrum gentium* design'd,
But as *Āi* penates performing their part.'

What, also, must we do, — what torture of the organs of speech must we endure, — to read the last line of the following couplet, as a rhythmical or even a rhyming effort?

'Till the sweet-temper'd dames are converted, by tea,
Into character-manglers — *Gunaiophagi*.'

Or how, in a word, can we tolerate the juvenile absurdity even of the running title which is prefixed to every number of the Essays?

'In hoc est hoax, cum quiz et jokesez,
Et smokem, toastem, roastem, folksez,
Fee faw fum! *Psalmanazar**.

'With baked, and broiled, and stewed, and toasted,
And fried, and boiled, and smoaked, and roasted,
We treat the town!'

We need hardly mention, after such an effusion,

'This modern mounter of Pegāsus,'
Verses, page 78. Vol. 1.

&c. &c. or 'the *Atlean* burthen of *Salmagundi*,' page 53. *ibid.* instead of "*Atlantean*," or sundry other grammatical delinquencies: — but we now turn to the more agreeable portion of our critique, and proceed to notice and to extract some passages in which, we think, the authors have displayed very considerable abilities.

These gentlemen certainly excel in an adroit species of irony which leaves something to the imagination of the reader beyond what is expressed, and at the same time recompenses him for the trouble which he takes in conjecturing the ultimate design of the author. Thus, for instance, when we are informed by a theatrical critic that 'he cannot tell how Mr. Cooper' (the American stage-hero) 'acts Hamlet, as he has never seen Kemble in the part,' we are left to gather from the context the satirical object of the writer, when he is attempting to ridicule that arrogant and numerous class of critics who,

* We suppose, if the thing be worth a supposition, that this is an allusion to the *language* of the island of Formosa!

having no ideal standard of perfection in their own minds, must refer to some living precedent or authority for a criterion of judgment, or rather for a kind of signal-post of admiration. Again, the petty and minute censor of insignificant trifles, the too close observer of decorum and costume, is well ridiculed by the writer; who remarks that 'Lady Macbeth *ought* to have stuck the candle in her nightcap, instead of putting it on the table, or holding it in her hand, inasmuch as it would have marked more strongly the derangement of her mind.'—'The Stranger in New Jersey' is another proof of the powers of ridicule which the Salmagundian essayists so frequently display. It would seem to be a plagiarism from the little English *jeu d'esprit* intitled "My Pocket Book:" but we fear, for the sake of Sir John Carr's credit as a writer of travels, that the American burlesque was about one month older than that which appeared in London. The occasional exposure of Parkinson, Priest, Weld, Moore, and other American tourists, is happy enough; and the last mentioned traveller, especially, has to complain of the poignancy of trans-atlantic satire. Some sarcastic lines on this subject form, perhaps, as good a specimen of the poetry of the volume as we could have selected: but they are of too personal a nature for admission in our pages; and indeed we are not inclined to estimate even the successful passages in verse which Salmagundi exhibits, so highly as we regard its excellences in prose. Among these last, we are pleased to discover on some occasions a facility of composing seriously, which the general habits of burlesque, observable throughout these volumes, would not have led us to expect. After having censured (for example) the too dissipated votary of fashion, in a letter addressed to the ladies, whom the authors of Salmagundi seem very anxious to interest in their own real welfare, they thus proceed:

'Yet some there are, and we delight to mention them, who mingle freely with the world, unsullied by its contaminations; whose brilliant minds, like the stars of the firmament, are destined to shed their light abroad, and gladden every beholder with their radiance,—to withhold them from the world would be doing it injustice;—they are inestimable gems, which were never formed to be shut up in caskets, but to be the pride and ornament of elegant society.

'We have endeavoured always to discriminate between a female of this superior order and the thoughtless votary of pleasure; who, destitute of intellectual resources, is servilely dependent on others for every little pittance of enjoyment; who exhibits herself incessantly amid the noise, the giddy frolic, and capricious variety, of fashionable assemblages, dissipating her languid affections on a crowd,—lavishing her ready smiles, with indiscriminate prodigality, on the worthy or the undeserving, and listening, with equal vacancy of mind, to the

conversation of the enlightened, the frivolity of the coxcomb, and the flourish of the fiddlestick.

'There is a certain artificial polish,—a common-place vivacity, acquired by perpetually mingling in the *beau-monde*, which, in the commerce of the world, supplies the place of natural suavity and good humour, but is purchased at the expence of all original and sterling traits of character. By a kind of fashionable discipline, the eye is taught to brighten, the lip to smile, and the whole countenance to emanate with the semblance of friendly welcome, while the bosom is unwarmed by a single spark of genuine kindness or good will. This elegant simulation may be admired, by the connoisseur of human character, as a perfection of art; but the heart is not to be deceived by the superficial illusion; it turns with delight to the timid retiring fair one, whose smile is the smile of nature,—whose blush is the soft suffusion of delicate sensibility,—and whose affections, unblighted by the chilling effects of dissipation, glow with all the tenderness and purity of artless youth. — Her's is a singleness of mind, a native innocence of manners, and a sweet timidity, that steal insensibly upon the heart, and lead it a willing captive;—though, venturing occasionally among the fairy-haunts of pleasure, she shrinks from the broad glare of notoriety, and seems to seek refuge among her friends, even from the admiration of the world.'

Faults are certainly discoverable in the language of the above extract: but the sentiments are excellent, and, on the whole, pleasingly conveyed. The little allegory which follows, (extracted, as it pretends, from the MSS. of the sage Mustapha, one of the fictitious writers of these volumes,) is no bad imitation of those exquisite essays in the *Spectator*, *Rambler*, and *Adventurer*, which almost transport us into eastern scenes, and familiarize our minds with eastern imagery in all its native brilliance. The concluding paper is another specimen of that species of irony which is so predominant in the work. The author, while he remarks some obvious and insignificant points of resemblance between *Salmagundi* and several previous compositions, at the same time refutes the charge of plagiarism with sufficient wit and argument. This topic is lightly treated in other parts of the work.—'The Little Man in Black' (No. 18, Vol. 2.) is a humorous and well told tale, until the reader arrives at the miserable joke about 'Linkum Fidelius;' and the '119th chapter of the Chronicles of the renowned and antient city of Gotham,' where the extravagant fondness for French dancing-masters, which prevails in the city of New York, is adroitly ridiculed, has many parallels in each of these volumes. We, however, coincide in opinion with the editor, who expresses his regret that the authors did not more frequently imitate the moral reflections and instructive lessons which adorn the essays of Addison and Johnson. The style of the latter we certainly would not *as yet* recommend to the study of American writers:

writers : since nothing but a correctly classical taste can ensure a judicious imitation of Johnson, if it will allow that imitation in the first instance. Addison, we again and again repeat, should be the model for an essayist ; unless, indeed, he is too highly gifted to require any guide but his own noble imagination.

The subjoined passage, extracted from an essay intitled ' Autumnal reflections,' contributed to occasion the wish which we expressed above, that the writers had more frequently indulged their serious vein :

' To one who, like myself, is fond of drawing comparisons between the different divisions of life and those of the seasons, there will appear a striking analogy which connects the feelings of the aged with the decline of the year. Often, as I contemplate the mild, uniform, and genial, lustre, with which the sun cheers and invigorates us in the month of October, and the almost imperceptible haze which, without obscuring, tempers all the asperities of the landscape, and gives to every object a character of stillness and repose, I cannot help comparing it with that portion of existence, when, the spring of youthful hope and the summer of the passions having gone by, reason assumes an undisputed sway, and lights us on, with bright but undazzling lustre, adown the hill of life. There is a full and mature luxuriance in the fields, that fills the bosom with generous and disinterested content ; it is not the thoughtless extravagance of spring, prodigal only in blossoms, nor the languid voluptuousness of summer, feverish in its enjoyments, and teeming only with immature abundance,—it is that certain fruition of the labours of the past, that prospect of comfortable realities, which those will be sure to enjoy who have improved the bounteous smiles of heaven, nor wasted away their spring and summer in empty trifling or criminal indulgence.'

The 10th number of the 1st volume, in which the modern musical taste falls under the animadversion of the authors, is no ordinary display of humour ; and the grand instrumental piece, called ' the Breaking of the Ice in the North River,' admirably exposes that style which substitutes noise for the expression of passion, and difficulty of execution for genuine harmony. The description of the antient mansion of the Cockloft family is equally creditable to the writer ; (No. 6. Vol. 1.) and we could mention many other essays of merit, but we trust that we have already said enough to excite the curiosity of some of our readers to become acquainted with the publication before us. We are inclined to think that a real knowledge of the American character, customs, and manners, is the chief thing that is wanting in this country to produce a very different feeling towards our brothers across the Atlantic.

We have studiously avoided any thing more than an allusion to political differences throughout this article : but we must

express a hope, on concluding, that, notwithstanding present appearances to the contrary, the time is fast approaching when each country, thoroughly understanding its own interests, will suffer no unreasonable prepossessions or antipathies to interrupt that mutual cordiality which is their best safeguard; and which their soundest political wisdom as well as their natural relations so forcibly enjoin.

ART. XI. *Secret Strategical Instructions of Frederic the Second*, for his Inspectors General. Translated from the German by Captain C. H. Smith. 4to. 15s. Boards. Coventry, printed for the Author, and sold by Longman and Co., &c. London. 1811.

IN a preface to this volume, the translator modestly apologizes for any inaccuracies that may have occurred either in the version or the plates, and thus speaks in explanation of his undertaking:

‘Soldiers do not often possess literary attainments in that degree to enable them to write with elegance; but as perspicuity ought to be the character of military composition, and is indeed the only object to which in this instance the Great Frederic seems to have attached himself, the translator trusts he shall be forgiven if he has not aimed at any thing more.

‘In this work, consisting chiefly of a series of plans and explanations, the King has occasionally added reflections of the greatest importance, in a style as familiar and void of ceremony as if he were actually addressing himself to his Generals on a field of battle.

‘The period at which this work was written, may be referred to the peace of Teschen; when the King had ripened all his theoretical schemes, by long experience and practice; and after, as some of the plans seem to indicate, he had been perplexed by the positions of Lascy and the movements of Loudohn.

‘As the instructions were drawn up for the purpose of establishing correct principles of Strategics to guide his Inspectors General*, they were bound to the greatest secrecy, and obliged personally to transcribe them, and to copy the plans.’

Captain Smith adds that, as the London book-sellers declined to publish the work on account of the great expence of engraving the plates, (of which the number is 31,) his conviction of the utility of an English version induced him to undertake the etchings himself; by which means he has been enabled to reduce the price of this edition to less than half that for which a French copy can be procured in this country;—and, as this

* * The Inspectors General were, under the Great Frederic, a select number of General Officers of the greatest abilities, and always intended for the command of armies.’

is his first attempt in etching, he trusts that any want of elegance in the execution will on that account be pardoned. — It will be observed, he says, that the plans relate chiefly to *Strategics* and but little to *Tactics*; (the truth is that they have no relation to tactics, or the arrangement of troops and their evolutions;) and he remarks that he has made use of the term *Strategics*, because we have no synonymous word in the English language. He gives a definition of it from V. Bulaur, who calls it “the science of military movement beyond the visual circle of the enemy, or out of cannon-shot;” whereas *Tactics* he defines to be, on the other hand, “the science of military movement executed in the presence of an enemy, so as to be actually in his sight, and within the range of his artillery.” These definitions make the difference between *Strategics* and *Tactics* to depend entirely on distance from the enemy, or leaves them exactly the same except as to distance; than which nothing can be more erroneous. The term *Strategics* comes from the Greek word *στρατηγικῆς*, which signifies neither more nor less than *generalship*, as *στρατηγός* means a General or leader of an army: but the term *Tactics*, which comes from *ταξις*, strictly speaking, refers solely to the arrangement, discipline, and motion of troops. Ælian defines it to be “a knowledge of warlike motion;” and Polybius, to be “an art by which a man taking a serviceable multitude, arrangeth it in ranks and bodies, and instructeth it sufficiently in all things pertaining to war.” The one refers to the multitude instructed, and the instruction given to them; the other, to the knowledge, abilities, and dispositions of him who commands; — and neither of them has any relation to *distance*.

As to the work itself, it consists of only eighteen pages of printed matter, in which are given short illustrations of the advantages and disadvantages of camps and positions, from thirty-one plans. The first of these is intended to illustrate the proper mode of occupying a position on a detached height which commands a plain, and is not itself commanded on any side. Frederick observes that the most advantageous method of occupying such a situation is to place the first line on the declivity of the hill, and the second on the summit: but he adds that ‘this cannot be done at all times, because the conformity of the ground must be attended to.’ Now this is nothing more than saying that, when such a position cannot be so occupied, the General must be guided by his own judgment, and the circumstances of the ground. — He remarks ‘that, should the first line be overpowered, the enemy will nevertheless have to expect the greatest resistance from the second; since in this case (he says) we must consider the post as a fortification, of which,

which, supposing the outworks carried, the ramparts still remain uninjured :— but here he seems to have forgotten that the outworks of a fortification have ramparts as well as the body of the place.

The great Frederick appears to have been fond of applying the principles of fortification to field-operations : for, in his instructions to officers, Art. VI., speaking of the *coup d'œil*, or glance of the eye, he says, ‘ the basis of this is the knowledge of fortification, whose rules are to be applied to every position of an army.’ This, indeed, is manifest from the plans annexed to the work now before us ; since, in several of them, his dispositions are partly concave and partly convex, or on lines within portions of curves, so that the different parts may afford flanking defences to one another.

The second plan is illustrative of the positions of two armies fronting each other, on heights of equal elevation, with a river between them.— The third is of an advantageous camp on a plain, with a wood on the left and a river on the right, the approach to which wing is flanked by a corps on the opposite side of the river, over which is a bridge of communication. The disposition is convex on the left, with a re-entering angle towards the centre.— The fourth relates to a camp in ambush on the edge of a wood. It has salient and re-entering angles, with redoubts for the purpose of flanking-defences.— The fifth delineates an ambuscade, in which the disposition of the body of reserve and the whole cavalry is optional.— The sixth shews a position liable to be attacked on two points, with a wood on its right wing. The disposition is partly re-entering and partly salient, with the right in a convexity, and redoubts for flanking-defences.— The seventh, which is intitled to particular attention, illustrates a strong unattackable position. The wings are advanced beyond the centre, which is in a large concavity.

As we cannot, however, take particular notice of every one of these plans, we must refer our military readers to the work itself, which officers of education and study ought to have in their possession ; and it would be in vain for us to make extracts from it, since they would not be understood by those who might read them, without the plans to which they relate. The instructions, it must certainly be allowed, are, as they ought to be, plain, concise, simple, naked, and unadorned, but they are replete with matter intimately connected with the sublime of the military profession. At the same time, we must confess, we are unable to discover any thing new in those which refer to the 14th plate, that illustrates the turning of a flank ; in the five that relate to the attacks of a strong camp ; and in the three on the passage of rivers.

ART.

ART. XII. *Introduction to the History of the Revolution in Spain*, by Alvaro Florez Estrada, Attorney-General of the Province of Asturias. Translated by W. Burdon. 8vo. pp. 179. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

WE have already had occasion to express our approbation of the political labours of Señor Estrada *; who now comes before us with a publication of greater length than that which we formerly noticed. After a few preliminary remarks on the course of the French Revolution, and on the character of Bonaparte, he enters at some length into a narrative of the events which preceded the present war in the peninsula. He assures his readers that the Spanish government, tired of subjection to France, had serious intentions of shaking off the yoke in the year 1806, if the overthrow of Prussia at Jena had not warned them to avoid a contest with Bonaparte in the midst of his triumphs. It can admit of little doubt that, in the spring of 1808, after the plan of usurping the government of Spain had been formed, the emigration of the Royal Family across the Atlantic would have been highly acceptable to their Gallic oppressor, and that Bonaparte's behaviour to Irquierdo and Godoy was calculated to forward that determination. The resistance of the people, however, prevented it when on the point of taking place. We apprehend that Señor Estrada pays too high a compliment to the prowess of his countrymen, in computing the loss of the French in Madrid, on the memorable 2d of May, at 7100 men, while that of the Spaniards was so much inferior; and we cannot lend our faith to the opinion (p. 100.) of the practicability of Ferdinand's escape from Bayonne:—still less to that of accomplishing the arrest of Bonaparte, whom we consider as most notable for the care which he at all times takes of his personal safety.

The official papers which passed at Bayonne are next given in detail, and followed by some very judicious observations on the origin of the profligacy of Bonaparte's principles.

* Napoleon (says Señor Estrada, p. 138.) having his mind formed during a revolution in which the passions display their full energy and violence, and when reason the most cultivated is hardly able to restrain them; accustomed to acquire by violence and intrigue the advantages which fortune had denied to himself and his family, and elevated suddenly to a situation sufficient to corrupt any one whose mind was not previously fortified by strong principles of morality, never listened to any other monitor than his passions. On reviewing the events of

* See Review for June last, p. 219.

his life, we should compassionate the ignorance and misery of our species, the facility with which they are seduced to turpitude and ruin, and above all, the meanness, insolence, and tyranny with which they suffer themselves to be treated.'

After having lamented the corruption of the higher classes, and particularly of the public authorities in Spain, notwithstanding which the insurrection against Bonaparte became general in the short space of six days, Señor Estrada enlarges (p. 157.) on the causes which have led to the subjugation of the other countries of Europe. 'An impartial history of the conduct of the different cabinets would convince us,' he says, 'that Bonaparte's progress is to be attributed to the weakness and corruption of long established despotism, more than to superiority of military talent. Notwithstanding the change of things in France, not one prince in Europe has ever thought of making that reform in his government which his existence, endangered by the French Revolution, required. Imbecility and ignorance never can be warned by the fate of others, to avert their own ruin. — If he has obtained successes over the Spaniards under the Juntas, it has been because they were composed chiefly of persons belonging to the privileged classes, and interested in the existence of those abuses by which the nation had been so long oppressed. They were so ignorant as to believe that their own merit only had given them the command, and that the people had no right to disobey or attempt to remove it. They gave commands and entrusted expeditions to men who had no other claim to them than interest.' — 'To be able to contend with Bonaparte, the Spaniards have nothing more to do than to get rid of the abuses under which they suffer: this once accomplished, the enemy is little to be feared. By no other means can we be sure he will not conquer us, and that our lot will not be more unfortunate than that of any others who have fallen under his dominion. The attempt, no doubt, is full of hazard, but we have already accomplished much, and the first step is always the most difficult.'

From the nature of these passages, our readers will perceive that Señor Estrada's object is to hold out an encouraging prospect to his countrymen, as far as the means of military resistance are concerned, while he strives to awaken them to the necessity of interior reform. He is a zealous advocate for popular influence, and introduces into his Appendix an address presented, in September last, to the Junta at Cadiz, against their interference in the elections of the Cortez. He promises to publish a farther work, if the present receives encouragement, which we sincerely hope may be the case; since, without

out going quite so far as the translator, (who, in the transport of his admiration, declares that 'he never met with any thing modern to be compared with the present publication,') we deem this to be a production that would do credit to a native of any country, and which bespeaks the greatest merit in an author whose life has been passed in one of the least advanced quarters of Europe.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1811.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 13. *Thoughts on the Repeal of the Bank-Restriction-Law.* By David Prentice. 8vo. pp. 79. 4s. Murray. 1811.

Mr. Prentice differs in several points from his brother-writers on the subject of bullion; and, instead of admitting that the balance of trade with the continent of Europe has been of late years against us, he contends that it still continues in our favour. Pursuant to this reasoning, the fall of exchange and the consequent rise of gold are to be ascribed to no other cause than the depreciation of our paper-currency; and the effects of war and taxes in enhancing commodities are, in his opinion, of very insignificant operation: the grand cause of the rise appearing to him to consist in a rapid fall in the value of gold, consequent on the Suspension-Act of 1797, which rendered gold in a great measure unnecessary in our circulation. The rate of depreciation of our bank-paper he estimates to be greater than it is stated in the Bullion-Report; his rule of computation being, not the difference of price between notes and bullion in this country, but the price of bullion abroad when paid by bills on England. He thus adds the expence of transport, and calculates the depreciation at two and twenty per cent. at a time when the home-market appeared to make it only fourteen per cent. Several tables of the progressive fall in the value of money, since the Suspension-Act, are exhibited; and Mr. Prentice lays it down as a clear case (p. 62.) that the repeal of that statute will cause a powerful re-action in the value of money. This sets him again at work in his calculations, and induces him to draw a sad picture of the losses which are likely to accrue to many individuals on the repeal taking place.

As we are very far from participating in Mr. Prentice's apprehensions, we deem it needless to extract the particulars of his account; and we cannot help remarking that his pamphlet appears to us on the whole an instance of perverted ingenuity, not greatly inferior to the lucubrations of Messrs. Raithby and Gloucester Wilson: (see Rev. for July, p. 322. and 324.) which is the more to be regretted, because the habits of calculation which he discovers might have enabled him, if rightly directed, to throw light on this difficult and complicated question. His style also greatly needs amendment in such phrases as the following; (page 9.) 'so clever a gentleman as Mr.

Mr. Bosanquet;' (p. 24.) 'the price of grain *beautifully explained by* Lord Lauderdale;' (p. 57.) 'moulded with the mintage of a syllogism,' and above all (p. 55.) when, speaking of Mr. Huskisson, he says, 'to talk *pugnantia*, in the course of his work, is unquestionless a vice of great kindred.'

Art. 14. - *Some Observations upon the Argument drawn by Mr. Huskisson and the Bullion Committee, from the high Price of Gold Bullion.*

First published in Letters to the Editor of the Times. By *Civis*. 8vo. pp. 74- 3s. Nicol. 1811.

These letters were at first intended, we are told, to be followed by an investigation of the whole question concerning the state of our currency: but the publication of a variety of other works on the same subject induced the author to desist from his purpose. He was led, however, to reprint his letters in the form of a pamphlet, in consequence of the other advocates of the Bank not appearing to him to have devoted sufficient attention to the refutation of the 'leading argument in the theory of the Committee and Mr. Huskisson.' By this leading argument, we understand the position that 'gold has long been, in this country, the scale to which all prices are referred; and that a rise in gold-bullion implies a fall in bank-notes.' *Civis* is greatly offended at the confident tone of Mr. Huskisson's reasoning, which he ascribes to that gentleman's viewing the Bullion-question as an abstract subject, and capable of direct demonstration on simple principles. 'He ought,' says the writer, 'to have regarded it as a practical subject affected by a great variety and combination of circumstances.'—Mr. Huskisson is also accused (page 66.) of disregarding the admission made even in the Bullion-Report, that commercial and political causes have had great influence on the state of our exchanges and the price of bullion. His definition of money is not less roughly handled, (p. 20.) and a severe censure is passed on him (p. 58.) for appealing to the feelings of the public in a manner calculated to excite discontent. As a proof that commodities do not rise in the proportion that paper falls, *Civis* enlarges on the well known fact that, during the last two years, the fluctuations in bullion have not been productive of correspondent fluctuations in our general markets. With regard to the various definitions of money, he is disposed to give a preference to that which occurs in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, viz. "Money is a piece of matter, commonly metal, to which public authority has affixed a certain value and weight, to serve as a medium in commerce."—This writer was one of the earliest advocates of the Bank, and might have ranked among the most popular of them, had he been more scrupulous in regard to the condensation and arrangement of his matter. Diffuseness of expression is the chief fault of his tract; and we must remark that men unaccustomed, like him, to literary composition, cannot be too much on their guard against this kind of error, which takes away, more than almost any thing else, from the efficacy of their appeals to the public.

Art. 15. *The Theory of Money*; or a practical Inquiry into the present State of the Circulating Medium: with Considerations on the Bank of England, on its original Charter and Constitution; and on its

its present Measures, and the Effects of those Measures on the Condition of the United Kingdom. 8vo. pp.96. 3s. 6d. Boards. Highley. 1811.

We have here a work which aims at a more comprehensive discussion than the majority of recent publications; and, though liable to several objections, it may be pronounced an useful manual to those who have hitherto remained unacquainted with the subject of exchange and the practical detail of money-transactions. The author's chief complaint is that, in the pamphlets which have hitherto appeared, an accurate distinction has not been made between the effects of the quantity of the currency, and the rapidity (or, as he rather quaintly terms it, the *velocity*) of its circulation. He sets out by explaining the steadiness of the value of gold by weight, contrasted with its fluctuations when in the shape of coin; and several pages are unnecessarily devoted to shew that gold is more uniform in value throughout the world than other commodities, because it is much more easily transported.—The next topic, the fallacy of estimating national gains by Custom-house returns, is treated more instructively; and we would recommend to the admirers of an accumulation of gold and specie the definition of national wealth, (p.18.) and the reflections which follow:

'National wealth (says the author) consists in the greatest number of free inhabitants over the smallest quantity of territory, enjoying the greatest quantity of the comforts and conveniences of life. The great riches of Britain are derived from the trade carried on, within, and round her islands, for the supply of necessities, comforts, and conveniences to sixteen millions of people.—How much more important must be that trade which ministers to the comforts, conveniences, and luxuries of sixteen millions of people, than that trade which merely finds a vent for the surplus or overflowings of those comforts, conveniences, and luxuries? Does not her wisest policy consist, then, in promoting the *home* rather than the *foreign* trade of consumption? The importance attached to foreign trade is derived from its being the instrument of revenue, financiers having preferred making its articles the object of taxation on account of the facility of collection. The consumers, the inhabitants, however, are the contributors of those taxes, and not the merchants, who merely pay them into the public chests and again collect them from the people.'

Although the amount of our exports regularly exceeds that of our imports, it is justly remarked (p.25.) that the excess would be still greater, provided we were in the habit of adding, as we fairly might, a sum for charges on our exports similar to that which is included in the valuation of our imports. What then, it may be asked, becomes of this large annual balance? It is swallowed up, answers the author, in the abyss of our foreign expenditure, and is extracted from us partly in the shape of bullion, but much more in that of bills.—These remarks on foreign trade are followed by a history of our national coinage, from which we copy the following list of the progressive *treasons* committed by our monarchs against the pound sterling:

Edward I. coined 1lb. weight of silver, in the 28th year			
of his reign, into		20s.	3d.
Edward III. 18th year		22	2
		Edward	

Edward III.	20th year	221.	6d.
	27th	25	
Henry IV.	13th	30	
Edward IV.	4th	37	6
Henry VIII.	18th	45	
Elizabeth	2d	60	
	43d	62	

Though this author is hostile to the conduct of the Bank since the suspension, he is disposed to acknowledge in a general sense the advantages of paper-money. One effect of the almost total expulsion of coin from our currency has been to enable us to approach more accurately to a knowledge of the quantity of money required for our circulating medium, particularly for our smaller payments.—In a tolerably full account which the author gives of the Bank, he is largely indebted to the publication of the late Mr. Allardyce, M. P. in the year 1798. He is particularly severe on the last contract between the Treasury and the Bank, which, he maintains, gave undue advantages to the latter; and he contends that the Bank very soon found the means of indemnifying themselves, by adding to their permanent issues sums equivalent, or more than equivalent, to the loans without interest which they made to government in 1800 and 1808.

The concluding part of the pamphlet, or rather volume, is occupied with remarks on the depreciation of our bank-notes, and on the means of providing and maintaining a metallic currency within the kingdom. A series of observations on the progressive limitation of bank-issues, and on the resumption of cash-payments, forms the termination of this prolix but not uninteresting publication.

Art. 16. *Commerce as it was, is, and ought to be.* 8vo. pp. 59.
2s. Richardson. 1811.

This is the most absurd and extravagant production which has come into our hands on the subject of Bullion. The following extract is no unfavourable specimen of the pamphlet at large, and will convey to our readers some idea of its character, which baffles, we confess, our powers of description:

Page 30. 'Currency signifies "is running." Currency, value, labour, use, and exchange are different parts of the will of man. The will of man is inconvertible, commodities are convertible. Commodities may exist without the will of man, but the will of man is necessary to currency. Currency being identified in the will of man, commodities representing currency should be identified in commodities. In commoner terms, currency is a mean to an end. Currency is no commodity, but a guinea and a bank-note are mixed commodities; the former partaking of gold and other metal, the latter partaking of paper and ink. It is natural that man should not have originally fallen on the fittest representative of every part of his will, that will partaking both of good and ill. A guinea being as 252 pence, and a bank note as 2 pence, the latter represents currency 126 times more fitly than the former,' &c. &c.

The first half of this singular production is directed to establish against the Bullion-Committee the charge of plagiarism from Dr. Smith.

Smith. One of the few intelligible passages in it treats (p. 38.) of the effect which the large freights, paid to neutrals, have had on the exchange. The work is ushered in by a dedication, advertisement, and introduction, in formal array; and it is concluded by the proposition of a remedy for all our evils in the shape of an Order in Council, which appears so complete a rhapsody that we should account it lost labour to attempt any analysis of its contents.

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 17. *An Introduction to Geography.* Intended chiefly for the Use of Schools. With a large Collection of Geographical Questions and Exercises, an Outline of the Solar System, and a Selection of the most useful Problems on the Globes. By Isaac Payne. 2d Edition, considerably enlarged and improved. 12mo. 5s. Darton and Harvey. 1809.

We have already noticed this work with commendation; (see M. Rev. Vol. lii. p. 108.) and in the present edition some errors of the first have been corrected, and many additions and improvements are made. Among these, the plan of exercising the learner's memory, by the questions at the end of the book, seems new and judicious; and the Historical Sketches are concise and well written, though we consider it as a defect that they are not all carried up to the same period; the account of Sweden going no farther than to the freedom obtained by Gustavus Vasa, and that of Italy terminating with the surrender of Rome to the Pope by Charlemagne, while the history of France leaves off with the Death of Louis XVI., and those of Holland and of Spain are continued to the placing of Bonaparte's brothers on the thrones of those countries. Altogether, we may recommend this as a well arranged and compendious introduction to geography; containing very little superfluous matter, and affording more useful information than is often found in a work of so limited a compass.

Art. 18. *Practical English Prosody and Versification; or Descriptions of the different Species of English Verse, with Exercises in Scanning and Versification.* Gradually accommodated to the Capacities of Youth at different Ages, &c. &c. By John Carey, LL.D. 12mo. 4s. bound. Gillet.

Dr. Carey disclaims all intention of making poets and poetesses by this publication; professing that his aim is only 'to teach the learner to read poetry with propriety, and to improve his style for prose-composition:'—but it seems scarcely necessary to go through a whole book of scanning-exercises in order to gain a knowledge of the metrical feet; and in Lindley Murray's English Grammar, not to mention others, we have already a reasonable number of exercises on this very plan. However, Dr. Carey's work is the most compendious of the kind which we have seen; his examples are collected with much industry; and his explanations may be useful not only to readers of poetry, but to those composers of "splay-foot verse" who wish to learn the common rules of metre.

Art. 19. *Key to Practical English Prosody and Versification.* By J. Carey, LL.D. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Gillet. 1809.

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This is a necessary appendage to the "Practical English Prosody," as containing all the exercises of the latter, properly filled up and arranged, so that the student will be enabled to correct his own mistakes.

Art 20. *A Sequel to the Poetical Monitor*, consisting of Pieces select and original, adapted to improve the Minds and Manners of young Persons. By Elizabeth Hill. 12mo. 3s. bound. Longman and Co. 1811.

It is no slight praise to say that this publication forms an appropriate sequel to the excellent selection for still younger readers, which Mrs. Hill lately produced, and which we announced in one of our former Numbers.

Almost all the poems in the present volume are transcribed from authors whose names alone would suffice to recommend them; they are classed according to their subjects, which include most topics of moral contemplation; and we think that it is an additional proof of the compiler's good taste, that most of the compositions with which she presents us are short and complete: while the few extracts which she makes from longer works are better calculated to stand alone than such mutilations usually appear.

Art. 21. *Familiar Letters*, addressed to Children and young Persons of the middle Ranks, 12mo. 3s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1811.

Though the style of this writer is neither forcible nor fluent, her work is recommended by a spirit of rational piety and benevolent solicitude; and it contains advice on the regulation of the mind and conduct, which may be useful to young persons in every rank of life. Some poetical sketches are introduced; among which we were pleased with a hymn, (page 116.) derived from the pen of the late Professor Carlyle.

Art. 22. *Manner Epistolaires*, or, the Young Lady's Assistant in writing French Letters. 2d Edition. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Deconchy. 1810.

This work appears to be well adapted for the purpose which it is meant to fulfil. The 'Essay upon the general principles of the Epistolary Art,' with which it commences, is written with judgment and acuteness; the chapter relative to French epistolary forms is useful and perspicuous; and although the subjects for letters which the author furnishes are trifling, they will be serviceable from his having subjoined the idiomatic French expressions at the end of each: while his extracts from celebrated French letter-writers are calculated to form the style and improve the taste of the reader.

NOVELS.

Art. 23. *Self Control*. 2d Edition. 12mo. 3 Vols. 2l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

We must ascribe great merit to this novel, although it has many very apparent defects. Among the latter, we must notice several pages of vulgar dialogue, totally devoid of humour, and numerous instances of incorrect

incorrect phraseology. — At p. 124. Vol. i. 'She was not just satisfied,' for *she was not quite satisfied*, is a Scoticism; p. 214. 'your charity is mighty excursive;' and in the 1st page of the second volume, 'the wants of Laura' are said to be '*clamant*.' 'Scarce' is used for *scarcely*; and it is observed that 'Laura did not less value money,' instead of *Laura did not value money less*, &c. &c. The fair author *encores* herself, if we may be allowed the expression, and sometimes repeats her arguments and reflections till we grow tired of assenting to them; while many of the incidents are ill contrived, and shew her to be a novice in novel-writing, unused to consider the *stage-effect* of her scenes. The excellence of this book, however, consists not so much in the story as in the sentiments; which, though perhaps too enthusiastic, are such as must improve every one who will attend to them. — Some of Laura's maxims deserve to become universal aphorisms; and the examples of her self-denial are told in a plain unaffected way, which will make them the more useful to unwary readers, who take up the book merely for amusement, and who may be beguiled into an amelioration of their morals. Many of the characters, by whom she is surrounded may be contemplated with advantage; and, indeed, among those who condescend to be instructed by what they read, and therefore examine what *cap fits them*, few will long study this work *bare-headed*.

Whether Laura's 'self-control' be perfectly natural is mere matter of opinion; and the decision depends, in a great measure, on the disposition of the reader; but it is a pardonable fault in a character, which is offered as a model, transcends those for whose emulation it is intended; and we would recommend this pleasing novel to all young people, particularly to those who are obliged to live with persons of bad temper, since they will find, in the scenes which it portrays, some admirable lessons of cheerful endurance,

Art. 24. *The Irish Valet; or whimsical Adventures of Paddy O'Halaran*: who, after being Servant to several Masters, became Master of many Servants. By the late C. H. Wilson, Esq., Author of "*Polyanthea*," "*Beauties of Burke*," &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Allen. 1811.

The hero of this tale is a sort of *Paysan parvenu*, and describes the different families in which he resided previously to his gaining a prize in the lottery, which enabled him to marry the fair Isabella, and become 'the master of many servants.' — A life of the author is prefixed, in which several extracts are taken from Mr. Wilson's other writings, as proofs of his wit and talents. It is indeed desirable that his reputation for either should not rest solely on the present performance, since its chief merit seems to be a successful imitation of the style in which a real valet would probably write; and even the felicity of this idea could not reconcile us to such sentences as the following; 'she had no occasion to get an Enfield's Speaker to learn her how to talk:' — nor to Mr. Paddy O'Halaran's jocosse assurance that 'as for taking medicines, he considered it a duty he owed to his constitution not to swallow any;' — nor to most other parts of the book, except two dialogues, the one between an Irish innkeeper and his guest the

other between an Irish lad and his master : these are characteristic and humorous, though certainly not very probable, nor, we believe, perfectly new.

Art. 25. *Le Curé de Wakefield ; Traduction nouvelle, par J. A. Voullaire.* 2 Vols. 12mo. Boards. Dulau, &c. 1811.

We may recommend this as the best French translation that we have seen of Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*. M. Voullaire has not only rendered every passage with laudable fidelity, but has entered into the spirit of the original ; and he has imitated the style and character of Dr. Primrose's narrative so successfully, that his history, in its present form, will be very amusing, as well as useful, to all who are studying the French language.

POLITICS.

Art. 26. *Attempt to estimate the Increase of the Number of Poor during the Interval of 1785 and 1803 ; and to point out the Causes of it : including some Observations on the Depreciation of the Currency.* 8vo. pp. 131. Murray. 1811.

The return made to Parliament on the subject of the poor in 1803 was much more complete than any which had preceded it ; since it comprehended not only the total of the poor-rates, but the number of persons receiving parish-relief, and distinguished the latter into in and out-poor, or, in other words, into those who lived in workhouses and those who received assistance at their homes. The return of 1785 being, as well as former returns, defective in the latter points, and conveying only the amount of poor-rates, the object of this pamphlet (or rather of the first part of it) is to arrive, by certain comparisons, at an estimate of the number receiving assistance in 1785. It appears that in 1803 the total number deriving parish-aid was

1,039,716 persons,	
of whom were in work-houses, at an annual	
average expence of	£12 3 6½ a head, 83,468
and, out of doors, at	3 3 7½ 956,248

the general average of expence being 3l. 18s. 8d. After a variety of calculations, the author expresses an opinion that the number of persons receiving parish-aid had augmented 200,000 in the eighteen years since 1785 ; an interval during which the population of England and Wales had increased nearly 900,000. We couple these estimates together, because the writer of this tract, following the erroneous *dictum* of Lord Hale, above a century back, that "the more populous we are the poorer we are," gravely pronounces increasing population to be an operative cause in augmenting the number of poor. He discovers a proper sense of the injurious tendency of our poor-laws, and enlarges on war and taxation as destructive to the comfort of our poor in a way which would procure our confidence, were it not shaken as he goes on by an unlucky encomium on Mr. Spence's extravagant pamphlet against commerce.

It has been justly remarked by writers on the poor-laws, that the cultivators of land discover more solicitude to keep down the average of wages than the amount of poor-rates. The consequence is that

that the proportion of poor is greater in agricultural than in commercial districts; in Sussex and Wiltshire, for example, than in Middlesex, Yorkshire, or Lancashire. Another consequence is, that in England the price of country-labour has by no means kept pace with the rise of provisions, the difference being paid by a tax on the public, under the charitable form of poor-rates: while in Scotland, on the other hand, where no similar power of imposing parish-burdens exists, the rise of country-labour has, during the present age, been rapid, and has fully corresponded with the enhancement of the articles of life. The advance in the rate of labour is there paid by the employer of labour; while in England the parish-rates being levied in a considerable degree on the inferior orders, it is no exaggeration to say that the poor are forced to assist the poor, and that the fall of one accelerates the fall of many.

The depreciation of our currency occupies the second part of the pamphlet, which is chiefly remarkable for the stress laid by the author on the extent of evil that is effected by country-banks. They raise prices, he says, by the plain course of augmenting the quantity of money with which buyers go to market. A similar effect, in his opinion, follows the extension of Bank of England-notes, consequent on the Suspension-Act, and on the adoption of the rule of discounting all good and *bond fide* bills. Notwithstanding the author's deference to the Bullion-Committee, he dissents from them in regard to their singular argument of a local rise of prices resulting from a local over-issue of paper; a passage which we have already shewn to be one of the chief errors in the Report.—After having explained how gold in coin is rendered, by the operation of law, inferior in value to gold in bullion,—and discussed the intricate subject of exchange, on the principles, nearly, of Mr. Blake,—the author concludes a pamphlet which has been composed with pains, but is conspicuous neither for novelty nor for arrangement, with an unsuccessful attempt to controvert Mr. Bosanquet's reasoning on the effect of our taxes and corn-trade in producing the depreciation of money.

Art. 27. *An Inquiry into the supposed Increase of the Influence of the Crown*, the present State of that Influence, and the Expediency of a Parliamentary Reform, By John Ranby, Esq. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. 6d. Baldwin. 1811.

It is evident from this pamphlet that Mr. Ranby is a staunch advocate of Mr. Perceval's administration; and he goes so far as to maintain that the reformists have not, either by argument or evidence, established the fact of a recent increase in the power of the Crown. He takes, as the objects of animadversion, Lord Grey's speech on reform, (published in the last year,) and an article in a periodical work on the same subject; while, on the other hand, Mr. Rose's pamphlet on the influence of the Crown * is occasionally quoted in his support. After having argued at some length that increase of public expenditure is not necessarily attended with increase of influence, he goes back to the history of ministerial majorities in the House of Com-

* See Rev. Vol. lxii. N. S. p. 83.

mons since the American war; endeavouring to shew that, at that period, small comparatively as were our revenue and our military force, the influence of the Crown was as great as it is at present. He quotes the division in the House of Commons on the 13th December 1792, when Mr. Pitt, having adopted a hostile course towards France, was supported by 290 members against 50. On the 7th April 1797, our pecuniary difficulties having seriously increased, a motion was made by the opposition to enter into negotiation, and negatived by 291 to 85. The address in support of the present war, moved by Mr. Addington, 23d May 1803, was carried by 398 against 67. During the Grenville ministry, the only high division was on the 30th May 1806, on a motion relative to a clause in the Mutiny Bill, 254 being on their side against 125; and when, on the meeting of the present parliament, both parties mustered their strength, and the House was filled (26th June 1807) beyond all example, a motion to censure the new ministry was negatived by 350 against 155. In the memorable division on the Walcheren expedition, the number brought forwards by Mr. Perceval was 275 against 227. On comparing these various divisions together, Mr. Ranby maintains that, although our present expenditure is six times as great as before the war of 1793, the ascendancy of the Crown in the House of Commons is not greater than it was formerly. Now Mr. R.'s inquiry being the *supposed increase* of regal influence, this view is fair: but it is obvious to remark that, in discussing the actual operation of this influence on the public weal, the question is its *positive* amount, not its *comparative* degree within the last twenty or thirty years.

While the author acknowledges that the *indirect* influence, that is, the ascendancy over members by granting offices to their friends, has received considerable addition by the augmentation of our expenditure, he contends that there has been an equivalent diminution of '*direct influence*;' or, in other words, of the number of place-men holding seats in the House. At the Revolution, no place-men were incapacitated from sitting in Parliament; and although some acts to that effect were passed after 1693, the number still remained considerable. In 1739, the number of place-men in the House of Commons was 72; in 1762, it was 96; in 1769, it was 89; and in 1781, it was 65: but since Mr. Burke's bill of 1782, and subsequent retrenchments, the number is only about 40.

Mr. Ranby desires those who object so stoutly to the exertion of influence, to go back to the reign of King William; during which the Crown found it necessary to keep a certain number of members in pay, and to administer a regular *douceur* at the end of the session. It is generally understood that Sir Robert Walpole brought corruption to a system; and that his successors, whatever they professed, found his plan too convenient to be relinquished. In regard to loans, knowing as we do that money in the present day is often lost by the contractors, we have no hesitation in agreeing with Mr. Ranby that the time, at which the bargains for loans became public transactions, in a great measure deprived the Crown of that description of influence. By this relinquishment, and by lessening the number of place-men, Mr. R. contends that the Crown has abandoned the disreputable part
of

of its power; and that the indirect influence which has succeeded is neither 'concealed, nor unreasonable, nor dishonourable.' Exclusive of the permanent opposition, the ministry, he adds, are frequently liable to resistance from the two minor parties,—the advocates for reform, and the 'conscientiously-wavering neutrals,' whose force, when joined together, may be calculated at between 50 and 60 members. It is remarkable that the addition of the hundred Irish members has made no alteration in the proportional strength of the parties, and even no considerable addition to the number of members habitually attending the House. If we go back to our parliamentary history for the last eighty years, we shall find that Sir Robert Walpole had commonly, on high divisions, from 260 to 280 votes: that Lord North had from 260 to 290; that Mr. Pitt had about the same; and that Mr. Perceval, for the last three years, has had from 250 to 275. The medium number remains, therefore, nearly as it was, and affords 270 as the strength which ministers have it in their power to muster on emergency.

After this historical detail of the influence of the Crown, Mr. Ranby proceeds to discuss the expediency of a reform in parliament; to which he is altogether hostile. This is, in our view, the most exceptionable part of the pamphlet; the weakness of the reasoning not being compensated, as in the former portion, by the communication of interesting facts. Yet, differing as we do from Mr. Ranby, we are ready to bear testimony to the integrity of his intentions and the temperance of his style. He lays great stress on Lord Grey's acknowledgement, in his speech, that "indirect influence" is "legitimate influence:" but, as that admission was accompanied by an assertion that the *legitimate limits* of such influence have been *exceeded*, in a manner *most dangerous to the liberty of the people*, it does not much aid the present writer's argument; and we may expect that the noble Earl, when he has the power, will act with regard to parliamentary reform on views which will be very different from the tenets of Mr. Ranby.

Art. 28. *Visions of Albion; or Arguments of Consolation and Confidence, addressed to the Inhabitants of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in the unexampled Conflict with the Gallic Empire.* 8vo. pp. 46. 2s. Rivingtons.

'Poor Albion having wasted much of life in voyage and travel, enjoyed a peaceful cottage, surrounded by the romantic landscapes of his native hills.' Such is the opening of this little tract; in which, after some more circumstances of domestic comfort are enumerated, a severe blow is represented as given to them by the edicts of the continental Despot. 'One day, Albion fatigued sought repose in the inviting shades of a forest, surrounded by lakes and retiring groves, where balmy sleep stole on his eyes, and prepared his soul for vision.' The objects displayed in the dream form the theme of the pamphlet, the intention of which is to make us feel strong in our own resources, and anticipate with confidence a prolongation of the contest with the Ruler of France. The chief events of the last twenty years are passed in review; and the power of our empire is described in a tone which, though sometimes exaggerated, (as in re-

gard to Ireland, p. 17.) is intitled, in the main, to our approbation and belief. Whoever knows the great addition to political power, which the enjoyment of liberty and internal tranquillity is continually making in an enlightened country, will not accuse of exaggeration the man who, like the author of this effusion, points with hope and exultation to the power of industry. The progressive increase of our population, under circumstances of considerable discouragement, and during the absence of so many who would otherwise have raised families, affords a convincing proof that, in the enjoyment of peace, the ratio of augmentation would go on with additional rapidity.

The inability of the French to become formidable to us at sea is another consideration in which we fully agree with this author; and no one will be likely to dissent from him when he urges the beneficial influence of improved morals on the political power of a country: but the grand point on which we differ from him is the conclusion to be drawn from these highly satisfactory premises; to him they appear arguments for a continuance of war, while to us they afford solid reasons for cherishing a pacific disposition. The majority of our countrymen would certainly prefer peace to war, if they were satisfied on the score of security; and if they were convinced that the means, which enable us to conduct the present contest successfully, would not fail to afford us a similar or rather a much augmented degree of power in future.—Towards the conclusion of this publication, some good hints are given in regard to a plan of warfare: but, in the author's ardour to communicate his impressions, he falls not unfrequently into inaccuracies of style. We have in one place (page 4.) 'rescue the tyranny of the seas;' (page 6.) 'associate,' adjectively, instead of *associated*; (page 14.) the inelegant epithet 'assortable;' and in page 15., when treating of the revolutionary madness of France, we are told that 'she has laid the foundation of a ruin which must recoil in *hunger* on her own pastures.'

Art. 29. *Facts relative to the present State of the British Cotton Colonies, and to the Connection of their Interests with those of the Mother-Country.* 8vo. pp. 62. 2s. Edinburgh, Bryce and Co.; London, Murray. 1811.

The public have for several years been accustomed to the appearance of pamphlets on the distresses of the West India *sugar*-planters: but an appeal to them on the subject of the *cotton*-planter is, in some measure, a novelty. According to the loose way in which persons who are unacquainted with trade are habituated to talk of its profits, it has been fashionable to consider cotton-planting as the road to speedy fortune: but this writer exhibits a very different picture. His object is to shew that the North American cotton-planter is in possession of advantages which enable him to afford the article on much lower terms than our countrymen in the West Indies; and that, as this superior cheapness is owing in some measure to the strict monopoly which we reserve to ourselves in regard to the supplying of our colonies with stores, justice as well as policy requires us to favour, in the way of taxation, the cotton of our own colonies above that of foreign states. As our revenue-laws stand at present, the preference given to our own cotton is insignificant, and is granted not
from

from regard to the planter, but for the encouragement of our shipping. Whenever the interest of our cotton manufacturers has clashed in the deliberations of government with the interest of the planters, the former has prevailed; and the rule followed by ministers has been to buy the raw material on favourable terms, without much caring whence it was procured. Since we have added Demerary, Essequibo, and Surinam, to the number of our trans-atlantic possessions, the proportion of the raw material supplied by our colonies has become one-third of our whole consumption: but the part of this which is drawn from our old British colonies is not large. The uncertainty of the retention of these conquests has probably operated with our government, and, in our opinion, justly, as an additional reason for not extending any special favour towards the culture of cotton.

The author of this pamphlet writes with an intimate knowledge of his subject, and communicates several matters which deserve to be put on record. He enlarges on the various ways in which the West India planters contribute to the public aid, in defraying the expences of their civil government, in maintaining several black corps, and in local allowances to British troops, as well as in paying taxes on almost every article which they receive and send out; and he then makes an estimate of the capital which must necessarily be vested in a cotton-estate. This amount, comprehending buildings, negroes, stock, &c. as well as the price of land, he computes at 140l. per acre; and the average crop he takes at 200lb. an acre, the plantation expences on which (exclusive of interest on capital) he reckons at 7d. per lb.; while the freight, duty, and other charges attending a sale, may be valued at 7½d. more. Adding to these sums an allowance at ten per cent. as the fair profit on capital in a distant and unhealthy region, the author infers that an average price of 2s. 7½d. per lb. is necessary to indemnify the planter, whereas the current value of late years has not exceeded 1s. 11d.; that is, it has afforded him only five per cent. on his capital. One of two things, therefore, should be done; the planter in British colonies should either be permitted to draw his supplies from America without restriction, or an allowance should be made to him in the shape of duty, equivalent to the extra expence which he pays on his stores from home. Of these alterations the former is clearly recommended by the dictates of policy, and shall always have any support which it is in our power to give it by enforcing its advantages on the minds of our countrymen. The latter, or rather something more than the latter exactly implies, appears to be the object of the present advocate for the cotton-planters: but, while he has our acknowledgement of the equity of his appeal in general, we must express a decided dissent from the specific mode in which he requires redress; namely, by *doubling the duty on foreign cotton, while he would have government take off the duty on British cotton altogether*. To double the duty on foreign cotton would be in fact to make ourselves pay so much dearer for it, and for no other reason than that we had, before-hand, made our colonists pay dearer for their plantation-stores. Is it not apparent to common sense that the best course, for both parties, is to make their respective purchases
wherever

wherever they can purchase cheapest? Is not this the way to favour most effectually the increase of the productive funds of each, and to extend in both that power and prosperity which never fail to accompany the augmentation of capital?

The North American cotton-planter is stated, by this writer, to cultivate at so much cheaper a rate than the British colonists, as to be able to afford cotton for nearly a shilling a pound less; but we suspect that the author is under a mistake, and that the difference is not so great. The Brazil planter is also said to enjoy the advantages of cheapness, together with those which result from fineness in the quality of his commodity. The importations of cotton from that quarter have, in consequence, increased greatly of late, while those from British colonies seem to have remained stationary at nearly twenty millions of pounds weight. From India, considerable importations were made during the continuance of the American embargo: but the freight is so expensive as to create a bar to that branch of trade in ordinary times. The difference between peace and war, in the charges of the conveyance and sale of West India-cotton, appears to be above four pence per pound.

Among other subjects of complaint on the part of the author, against the foreign cotton-planters, is their continuing to profit by the slave-trade: a traffic which all civilized governments, whether at peace or at war with each other, ought to concur in consigning to speedy extinction.

It will not escape our readers that an important difference subsists between the situation of our sugar-planters and that of our cotton-planters; the former have too much produce for our consumption, and complain of being obliged to ship the whole to the mother-country; the latter are only partial contributors to our demands, and are dissatisfied, not at being obliged to send the whole of their growth to England, but at the manner of the admission of other competitors to the same market.

POETRY.

Art. 30. *Babylon; and other Poems.* By the Hon. Annabella Hawke. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1811.

It may be allowed that the first poem in this collection does credit to the fair writer's abilities: that she has successfully applied the prophecies of Isaiah, relating to Babylon, to her poetical purposes; and that, in several respects, her composition might be considered as worthy of a place among the best collections of verses on sacred subjects. She betrays, however, many faults even in so short a production; and we shall beg leave to point them out to her, with a freedom which will enhance the value of the praise which we may feel ourselves justified in bestowing on the more carefully executed passages.

The exordium is rather awkward:

' Where Shinar's plain extends its barren sands,
Where e'en no Arabs rove in lawless bands,' &c. &c.

"Where" and "where" such and such things exist, "there" and "there" such and such things are, or are not, to be found,—this is not

not an uncommon mode of commencing a poem, but it is a very in-artificial and uninteresting mode, to say the least.

‘ When from th’ empyrëan height the angels fell,’ (p. 6.)
cannot be read as a verse, unless the following,

‘ Nor shun the blaze of empyrëan light,’ (p. 9.)
be erased or altered.

‘ And on the kid *the now* fierce tyger prey’d,’
is a proof of the loss of the early state of innocence.

‘ To feed with beasts, *be wet* with dew from heav’n,
as a description of the fallen state of Nebuchadnezzar, and

‘ —he who can this hidden sentence clear,
A chain of gold and scarlet robe shall wear,’
as a part of Belshazzar’s speech concerning the hand-writing on the wall,—all these lines, we must observe, are feeble and unpoetical.

‘ Declare ye ’mongst the nations ; bend the bow ;
Set up a standard ; lay the mighty low ;
’Gainst Babel rise, ye Princes, in array,
And smite her haughty rulers with dismay,’ &c. &c.
is mere versification of scripture, neither very elegant nor very spirited.

‘ The guilty kingdom’s peopled with despair’
is bombast itself.

‘ As some torn branch, *be* from the grave is cast,’
is a very poor line.

‘ From Babel is cut off the remnant, name,’
is Isaiah again, measured into ten feet.

‘ The spot where Babel rose, now desert land,’
is an instance of the ablative absolute, not particularly correct nor intelligible in English :—but we close these specimens of faults, and proceed to extract a good passage from this short composition.

‘ No more Euphrates rolls his silver tide,
Round Babel’s lofty walls in wealthy pride ;
His waves now fertilize a stranger’s lands,
And pools of water moisten Shinar’s sands :
Each morn the sun shall rise, each ev’ning beam
With burning lustre on a scanty stream ;
The moon shall glimmer on the panther’s den,
And light to deeds of death the foes of men :
Around the ruins deadly scorpions rove,
And serpents haunt Belshazzar’s impious grove :
The vulture screams the gloomy marsh around,
And dragons wander o’er the thorny ground ;
Each savage beast that shuns the blaze of light,
And spirits hov’ring ’midst the glooms of night,
To them Chaldea’s wasted plain is giv’n,
The dreadful guardians of the wrath of heav’n.’

The

The description of the pilgrim lost in these deserts is also well finished; and the brief notes subjoined display a laudable acquaintance with the prophets.

But what is the next poem in the volume to this sacred song of Babylon? 'The Jack-daw at Home!'—and leaving our readers to enjoy this surprising contrast, we shall ourselves bid adieu to the Honourable Annabella Hawke and her remaining little poems; which are as indifferent as occasional compositions on temporary subjects usually appear to be, after the moment which gave them birth. A fragment on Death occurs at the conclusion, which we would encourage the fair writer to retouch and to complete.

Art. 31. *Carmina Selecta; tum Græca, tum Latina; Ricardi Pauli Jodrell, Junioris; quorum omnia ferè intra Annum Ætatis Decimum Octavum Alumnus Scholæ Etonensis conscripsit.* 8vo, Londini. 1810.

If these verses are as correct as the classical compositions of young Etonians usually are, yet, setting aside the merit of their language and versification, they have little else to recommend them. Much more fancy, and much more feeling, might be expected from the age of sixteen or seventeen.—Some inaccuracies also occur which we were surprized to discover in exercises, the generality of which, we are told, gained prizes, or at all events received public approbation, at Eton. We will point out some few of them. The line

'*Ab! regem ereptum lugete, O! Susa,*' &c. (p. 3.)

makes us exclaim "Ah!" and "O!" indeed; while

—'prurit,
Dum pernox acies' (p. 5.)

is a very cavalier manner of telling us that the author's eye itches. '*SALVE, Mercurii eloquens ocellus,*' is, we suppose, an eye-salve for the occasion!

We have a specimen of a versified edition of Lempriere's Classical Dictionary, in one of the exercises, containing some childish nonsense about boxing, and dragging in the name of antient pugilists; and some still worse stuff in another, about sacrifices, and the inspection of entrails: all which may pass very well at school, but *non hominem sapit*,—and the press has nothing to do with it.

'*Rolles potestas juncta timentium.*
Quid si Britannum martia vis coit?
Gallos minaces tum pigebit
Anglicos temerasse fines.' (p. 28.)

We cannot imagine any compliment to our country more awkward than the above, nor any poetical expression more flat and spiritless. '*Coitus petere meas,*' even in the mouth of Phædra, is too strong for the delicacy of a puerile composition; and '*Facinoris, Anime, credulos,*' is a ludicrously licentious Iarabic. In some Galliambics, (a metre of which the extreme difficulty drives this young poet into the most forced combinations of words,) we are told that '*harrea erect the ear of a horse,*' '*aurem arrigunt equinam;*' and

'*Ubi tympanum remugit, cava cornua retonant,*'

with

with many other similar plagiarisms, renders this poem a mere cento from that unique classical composition in the same metre, the *Atys* of Catullus. '*Imaginosus*' is a word to be found only in this last author; and for '*Imperjuratus*' we do not recollect any authority. '*Deduce*' must, we believe, be sanctioned (if it can be sanctioned in lyric poetry) by the analogy of *adduce*, in Terence. We cannot at present remember any similar imperative in the compounds from *Duco*. The old form of *Duce*, instead of *duc*, is, we think, to be found only in Plautus. How '*Scypho*,' at the end of a Pentameter verse, escaped Etonian correction, we know not: '*ac id*' is a violation of a well known Latin canon: but we must not proceed with the specific notice of boyish errors; and only observing that the Greek poems are rather more tame and more correct than such compositions generally are, we shall select a favourable specimen of the Latin, and conclude our brief critique. In his farewell to Eton, the youth thus expresses himself:

' *Si quicquam finxi, si non ignobile carmen,
Omne tuum est blandâ, docte Magister*, ope.
Tu mea victrici decorabas tempora lauro,
Et puero aureolus munera liber† erat.
Nunc apice in summo evectus, nunc classe supremâ,
Emeritus vates, ceu moriturus olor,
Exequiale melos fundo; citharamque reponens
Ad Thamesis ripas Musa dolore silet:
Ipse cadit digito calamus; vix dicere, "Etona,
" Cara, potest, nutrix, lingua retenta, vale!"
Ab! ubi plus, requies, animique serena voluptas,
Ab! ubi plus fraudis nescia vita fuit?
Et paribus studiis, paribusque exercita ludis,
Labitur innocuo quaque tenore dies,' &c. &c. (p. 103.)*

Art. 32. *Commerce; a Poem. In Five Parts. With Notes in Illustration of the Morality and Argument of the Context.* 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

' 'Tis Barbarism, foul, abortive fiend!
Whom late the seeds of superstition screen'd:
Dispers'd the shades, the Monster stands confest,
And slow and sullen quits his ancient rest;
On sombre pinions borne, he glides away,
And, *blinking*, deprecates the face of day.' Page 65.

We shall add no farther quotations from the poem of *Commerce*, lest we present the author with

' A wreath ill-fitted for a poet's use.' Page 40.
Justice, on the other hand, requires us to observe that much good sense is displayed in the notes; which, the author so strangely says, are 'in Illustration of the Morality and Argument of the *Context*.'

* Doctors Heath and Goodall, as the author informs us. How these learned persons liked the open vowel at the end of the line, we cannot guess.

† A terrible false quantity.

Art.

Art. 33. *The Bullion Debate*; a serio-comic satiric Poem.— By William Pitt, Author of the *Surveys of the Counties of Stafford, Leicester, Northampton, and Worcester*. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1811.

The surveyor of the midland counties for the Board of Agriculture has here ventured to tread on new ground, and to add the labours of poetry to those of history: but we cannot congratulate him either on the nature of his subject, or on his manner of treating it. To have made such a topic palatable in poetry, the author should have aimed at great brevity, and have bestowed the utmost pains on his composition: but, in consequence of the length of the performance, and of the haste with which it was written, the greater part of this poem is flat and prosaic. The following extracts are highly favourable specimens, and are selected from the speeches which were most likely to afford an opportunity for the display of Hudibrastic powers:

‘ **MR. CANNING.**

‘ Bank paper too should represent
Coin in full standard, as it went;
But now it represents a coin
Which can be neither your’s nor mine—
A coin in which but few abound,
Of which but little can be found.
“ Two currencies of different fame
But each one passing for the same,”
The higher soon will go astray,
And from the country find its way.

‘ **SIR FRANCIS BURDETT** rose to say
That gentlemen had lost their way,
Each one to his own fancy sticks,
And on no principles they fix;
They were upon an ocean wide;
And tossed about without a guide;
But Gentlemen are grown so wise,
They grope about and shut their eyes;
They break their heads ’gainst post or wall,
And this experienced practice call.
The nation’s ruined, at an end,
If but on paper it depend;
In France if paper sunk at all,
Our ministers proclaimed their fall;
At home, although it’s much the same,
They call it here a thriving game.

‘ **JACK FULLER** rose, and thus he said
This noise is about nothing made;
He had not seen such humbug work,
Since that about the Duke of York!
No man would say that could be found
That five-pound notes were not five pound,
Or would not take if he could get,
Such in the payment of a debt.

If gold is dear, scarce, and so forth,
 Let guineas pass for what they're worth.
 These things would quickly come about,
 Who guineas had would bolt them out.'

Had the whole or even the chief part of the poem been equal to the preceding passages, poor as they are, it might have afforded amusement : but, in addition to the heaviness of many of the speeches, the author has clogged his work with an attempt at versifying the resolutions moved by Messrs. Vansittart and Horner, than which a more luckless subject could not have occurred to the imagination of a poet.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *A Defence of Mr. Joseph Lancaster, and the Royal British System of Education ; or, Half an Hour's Conversation between Lady Letitia Liberal, and her old Waiting Woman, Mrs. Prudence Paradise. on the Subject of "A Dialogue between a Master and Apprentice,"* occasioned by Lectures on Education, delivered by Mr. Lancaster, in Bath, in the month of February, 1810. To which is prefixed, Mr. Whitchurch's Poetical Epistle to Mr. Joseph Lancaster, on his Royal British System of Education. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

We have more than once had occasion to notice the ungenerous attacks which have been made on Mr. Lancaster, on account of the new system of education. Even his cautious avoidance of offence has been employed as a weapon against him ; and because he has introduced the substance of no discriminative creed, it has been insinuated that he is indifferent to all creeds. Such accusations, however, scarcely deserve reply ; and Mr. L. stands in no need of the defence which some zealous friend has here volunteered. Just remarks are offered on other points besides the Lancastrian Education : but we are too dull to perceive the propriety of making an old waiting-woman the interlocutor.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 35. *The Necessity of Attention in a Christian Minister to his Duties, and the beneficial Consequences attending a faithful Discharge of them ;* preached at Brecknock, August 8, 1810, at a Visitation held by the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of St. David's. Published at His Lordship's Request, with the Patronage of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge and Church Union, established in his Diocese. By the Rev. W. J. Rees, A.M., Rector of Cascob, Radnorshire. 12mo. 1s. Walker. 1811.

The text, (1 Tim. iv. 16.) which Mr. Rees has here chosen, has been often selected by the preachers of Visitation and Ordination sermons ; and we do not think that any passage of scripture can be more appropriate, when the pastors of Christian flocks are to be addressed in the language of serious exhortation. St. Paul's advice to Timothy is judiciously expanded and enforced by Mr. Rees ; and under the heads of conduct and doctrine, the duties of the clergy are properly explained. It was almost impossible to urge any thing new on so beaten a topic ; but all that this preacher has said is well said.

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

In our account of Miss Smith's translation of the Book of Job, (Rev. for June last,) we adverted to the editor's statement that this learned young lady had never seen any other than the Bible-version of that book, and intimated the *probability* that she had consulted Bishop Stock's version. We have since received a note from the father of this lamented and amiable female, in which he assures us that her version of Job was completed in 1803, whereas the Bishop's book was not published till 1805, 'and therefore she could not possibly at that time have seen it.' We are very ready to make this circumstance known: but we can by no means coincide in the expression of Mr. Smith, that the idea of his daughter's having consulted another work was a *reflection on her character*. It is the *duty* of every writer, when treating of a difficult subject, to consult all preceding publications of a similar kind, and to avail himself of all aids which may thus be obtained.

We have not yet seen the work mentioned by J. C. S., but will inquire for it.

Mr. Crabb's very temperate and modest letter would make us glad to qualify our censure of his work, if it were in our power: but a full and minute consideration of it obliged us to speak as we did. He mentions a *third* part of his *Preceptor*: but we believe that it has not reached us.

We have received a letter from *Amicus*, dated 23d. 7th month, in which he denies all merit to *Faith*, and protests against our placing it in the list of virtuous principles. He seems to forget that piety, benevolence, &c. must proceed from some previous conviction in the mind; and surely the pre-disposing cause (if we may so speak) of piety and virtue must be meritorious. Besides, does not the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews say that "*without Faith it is impossible to please God?*" What would be the value of a prayer muttered over by a person who had no serious conviction of the being, perfections, and providence of God? *Faith*, in the New Testament-acceptation of the term, signifies such a deep-rooted conviction of divine truth, as disposes the heart to a willing and active obedience to the divine commands, and of course is the stimulus to and groundwork of virtue. *Amicus's* second note is just arrived.

Mr. Greig's work has long been in the hands of the member of our board in whose department it lies, but the Editor has not yet obtained his report of it. Mr. G.'s second note has come to hand.

A. B. (Great Russell Street, Covent Garden,) is informed that we always *demur* to *anonymous* communications of the kind to which he refers.

Our readers are requested to observe, that the APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, on the 1st of October.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
SIXTY-FIFTH VOLUME
OF THE
M O N T H L Y R E V I E W
E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Tige de Myrte et Bouton de Rose, &c. &c.*; i. e. The Sprig of Myrtle and the Rose-Bud, an Eastern Story; originally translated under the Inspection of an Arab of the Great Desert; now furnished with new preliminary Matter; corrected throughout; and enlarged by Six Chapters, according to the valuable Manuscript of Babylon on the Nile*. A Work published in Europe, under the Care of the Author of the Philosophy of Nature. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

THE parade and solemn absurdity of this title-page are preserved with all the stale particularity of a novelist, who tells us that he is writing or translating a true history, through several dull pages of preliminary matter. In the year 1794, the editor says, he was in one of the four-and-forty thousand Bastiles of republican France; and there he encountered an Arab of the Great Desert, who taught him the language of the MS. in

* By Babylon on the Nile, we suppose that the author means Grand Cairo. 'Our *dis-organizing* Grammar,' he says, page 394. Vol. I. 'has made *Grand Caire* of Kairah; which city was founded on a part of the ruins of the antient Babylon, a name that lasted till A. D. 959.' By his fondness for the notion, we conclude that he attributes his fictitious MS. to this spot, rather than to Babylon on the Bubastic branch of the Nile.

question, which he translated by way of exercise in his course of study! — The scene of the story lies principally on Mount Libanus, and in the valley of the Orontes. The time is that of St. Louis of France, and embraces the Crusade in which he commanded, A. D. 1249.

‘It is certain,’ affirms this grave historian, ‘that shortly after the death of Timour (one of the chief personages in his narration) three editions of these singular memoirs appeared at the interval of a few years from each other, in Arabic; that two of them were divided into forty chapters; and that the other was more voluminous,’ and indeed contained additional matter. ‘The pigeons of Aleppo, of Alexandria, and of Mount Libanus,’ continues the editor or rather author, ‘were charged with the conveyance of these *precious* manuscripts. Each winged caravan consisted of forty messengers; and each messenger carried a leaf of silk paper, on which a chapter was written in letters of the minutest size. One of these caravans descended at Mecca; another in the Isle of Cyprus; and a third at the Egyptian Babylon.’ The Meccan edition belonged to his friend the Arab; a member of the Institute of Cairo, ‘*who escaped impaling for his wish to enlighten Egypt*,’ brought him that of Babylon; and that of the Isle of Cyprus was exchanged by a branch of the royal family of Lusignan for a precious Homer in the possession of the author, which he had purchased for six livres during the Revolution, of ‘a Vandal’ belonging to the Committee of Public Safety. This Homer was afterward sold by the illustrious descendant of the kings of Cyprus, for six hundred livres, to adorn the library of the Prince of Benevento!

Not contented with these *oblique* sketches of flattery directed to the creatures of the Emperor, the author, as is usual in modern French prefaces, launches forth into the most ludicrous adulation of Bonaparte. Here, however, he is a little embarrassed. When this work was first printed in 1799, (*after the MS. of Mecca*),

‘The world (says the writer) was talking with the greatest interest of the hero who then astonished the East, and has since changed the face of the world. It appeared to me that it would be excessively attractive to draw his horoscope nearly six hundred years before he was born; and to predict, in an oracle of Misphegmouth, *all that Europe had to hope* in his genius and in his ruling star!! The Arab of the Great Desert was still at Paris. *He adopted my idea, which no motive of interest degraded*, and translated, himself, into the language of the Koran my Egyptian oracle. — BUT now, when this hero is above panegyric itself, there would be a want of dignity in mingling his laurels with the myrtles of Venus; and in representing his name, which effaces every name, as united with the cypher of *Bouton de Rose*. I have

have therefore taken care to suppress my two pages, not translated from the Arabic, but translated into the Arabic; partly because they rendered too insignificant my two heroines of love; and partly because history claimed them for her immortal leaves.'

To compensate, however, for so important a loss, we have in this edition (as the title-page announces) six new chapters, in which the story is brought to a conclusion, which was not effected before, at least not so satisfactorily as at present; and here we must confess that the author has displayed considerable ingenuity. The interest of the story (to those who can find interest in extravagant romance) continues to the end; and considerable art is certainly discovered in the development of the characters, and in the general bearing of the incidents towards the conclusion. Some digressions, indeed, might be wholly spared: but the manner in which many apparent miracles, that confound our senses in the course of the work, are explained by natural means in the catastrophe, really reflects credit on the invention of the writer. The composition, in a word, is one of the strangest which has issued from the modern Parisian press, as far as we are acquainted with its productions. It is in some parts sufficiently amusing, and in others very dull. It is occasionally very moral and instructive, and often thoroughly trifling, indecent, and irreligious. These varieties, perhaps, are observable in many works: but we scarcely ever saw the contrast stronger, or more abruptly introduced, than in the present.

After much additional preamble, which we have neither inclination nor room to translate, the author lays his introductory sections before us; 'and this,' he observes, 'is the sole liberty that he has taken with his original:' but, in fact, he frequently distinguishes himself from his Arab throughout the work, and sometimes speaks in one character and sometimes in another. He tells us that he has collated all his three MSS., and has found them to agree in all material points; and he thus commences his romance. A beautiful youth, whose name we afterward learn to be Ariel, is wandering among the defiles of Mount Libanus, when he sees an Arab suddenly precipitate himself down a declivity which the path intersects. With difficulty he arrests the intended self-murderer in his fall, and receives in return an insulting reproof instead of thanks. By degrees, however, he brings the unhappy wretch to his senses; and particularly by the force of a reply which he makes to the Arab's observation, 'that his suicide was predestined;' namely, 'that it seemed rather to have been predestined that his suicide should be prevented!' After some farther friendly dialogue, the new acquaintances arrive at a very romantic spot, where,

under the shade of some palm-trees, and at the side of a natural fountain and basin, they are enjoying a short repose, when, all at once, Ariel perceives a 'Rose-bud' growing on a bush which overhangs the water on the opposite bank, and, descending into the stream, he swims across it, plucks the rose, and places it *with emotion* in his bosom. The Arab has scarcely had time to wonder at this extraordinary act, when he sees a 'Sprig of Myrtle' growing at the side of the rock whence the fountain issues: he then plunges immediately into the water; and, with a fierceness bordering on insanity, he tears away the myrtle from its root, and, cutting it to pieces, flings it indignantly into the basin below. The two strangers contemplate one another with silent astonishment, and make mutual apologies for their conduct, which are about as intelligible to the reader as they must have been to the parties themselves. A new character now appears on the scene. At the mouth of a chasm in the rock, which discloses itself at this moment as if by the effect of magic, stands an aged man, with a venerable beard and white hair. After having reproved, but with much meekness, the impetuosity of the youths, (whose secret attachments he guesses from their late actions,) he proposes a little respecting the rights of private property, — his rose-bud, we suppose, and myrtle-branch, — and then invites them into his grotto of wonders, as it is very properly called. We shall not attempt to describe the miraculous appearance of this place, with its walls of granite and cascades of crystalline water, and glittering spars in the form of icicles on its roof and sides; still less can we dwell on its forty chambers, all closed save one; and its forty tombs, with the same strange peculiarity. The principal sitting-room is the Pavilion of Pigeons, as it is intitled, not from being the *ὄρνις* of the Greeks,

— "*molles ubi reddunt ova columba*," —

although it is an upper apartment, but from its being the place in which the winged messengers that pass between Orondates, (for such is the name of the old man,) and Timour the Sultan of the Mountains, receive their commissions, and return with their replies.

Here the Arab, who is called Kondemir, and Ariel, are very safely lodged: but the activity of the former, and, above all, his thirst for revenging the wrongs which he has suffered from the 'Sprig of Myrtle,' will not permit him to profit long by the hospitality of Orondates. The latter having given him some good advice as to restraining his passions, he answers as follows; and, though we must reprobate the gross levity, (to say the least of it,) with which the author, on this occasion as

on

on others, attempts to ridicule the religious belief which is not his own, we cannot help admiring the general animation of the passage :

‘ Thy philosophy may reduce me to silence, but it cannot persuade me of its truth. Born in the most independent country of the earth, I have associated with my fellow-creatures only to experience the most cruel of injuries from the being who was dearest to my heart. This dreadful event has fixed the destiny of my life. My blood boils in my veins whenever I meet a tyrant ; and who has ever tyrannized over mankind in a more insulting manner than these Crusaders, who would snatch our country from us, because their god died in that country some twelve centuries ago ; — who, to gain possession of a vain tomb at Jerusalem, would make one grave of Egypt, of Arabia, and of Palestine ! Without doubt, it would be better for a great number of freemen to unite, and sweep away at one blow from the face of the globe the still greater number of oppressors : — but, in a word, why fetter the individual courage of the man who is conscious of his strength ? A day, an hour, a moment of delay, — is it not an unpardonable offence, when we can save one cottage from conflagration, or prevent one murder ? Besides, the guilty man, whatever be his power, is always alone ; alone I can drag him aside, fight with him hand to hand, and make him suffer the doom of his own victims. What are his guards and scaffolds to me ? I shall ever be his superior, because I know how to die.’

This speech, if clothed in the declamatory verse of the French theatre, would have sounded nobly from the voice of *Talma*. The romance, indeed, which we are reviewing, abounds in dramatic dialogue and incident ; and we should think that the Parisian playwrights must have found it a good storehouse for plot, character, and situation.

Orondates dismisses Kondemir, to enter into the service of Timour, the Sultan of the Mountain. This prince, (in parts of whose character we sometimes fancy that the author intends to delineate Buonaparte*,) endowed by nature with the strongest powers of mind, has also received from her hand the frequently accompanying gift of most ungovernable passions. By the Koran and the sword, he rules without restraint over the minds as well as the bodies of his subjects. Orondates, who is a great experimentalist in natural philosophy, has taught him, by a thousand practical exhibitions of his knowledge, (which the

* Thus making some amends for the flattery of his preface. Indeed, we have observed in this, as in other French works of the day, a disposition to atone for that necessary piece of preliminary adulation, by weaving into the body of their compositions not only the strongest censures of a military despotism, but sometimes still more pointed and particular allusions. See our critique on the *Essai sur Platon*, in the Appendixes to Vols. lxii. and lxiii.

sage intended, we are told, to serve only for innocent purposes,) to delude the people into a belief of his supernatural communications with heaven. On this head we find some strong, and occasionally some offensive, remarks in many parts of the work. For instance, in his conversation with Ariel after the departure of Kondemir, the Sage observes :

‘ In the earliest ages of the world, every government was a theocracy. It would indeed be difficult to explain how man could at first have said to his equals, “*you shall obey me,*” if he had not made the Governor of the Universe interpose in his behalf, and sanctioned the title of viceroy, which he usurped, by that of Vice-God. — Theocracy, having nothing but credulity for its foundation, established itself in the times of barbarism, and was overturned at the first dawn of civilization. Greece under Pericles, and Rome under the first Cæsar, had no theocrats : but Moses was a theocrat, when no Hebrew could write, unless he was of the sacerdotal order ; Numa, when the Romans believed in the visions of *Ægeria* ; and in our days (1250) the Pontiff of Italy, when Europe, turned theologian, imagines that it can regenerate Asia with the sanguinary folly of the Crusades. Theocracy is a terrible engine in the hands of the generality of kings ; because, always placing themselves and not their people in the centre of the grand circumference of society, they employ for the indulgence of their petty and malignant passions, that double despotism which they maintain by the sword and by the crossier.’

In another passage of the same conversation, the author makes his free-thinking Sage express himself still more loosely on all systems of religion : but we have cited enough to prove our assertion respecting his levity on these topics.

A series of wonders, *almost* all performed by natural means, as it afterward appears, but at the time making the reader fancy Orondates to be a conjurer, is now exhibited in the Grotto. These we cannot detail : but we shall cite, as a fair though not very creditable specimen of the few little pieces of poetry which are interspersed in the narrative, the following song, supposed to be sung by three voices belonging to some invisible songsters, concealed in the Pavilion of Pigeons, where Ariel is reposing on a bed of flowers :

“ *Jeune homme au teint de Rose,
Sur ce tapis de fleurs où ta tête repose,
Attends en paix le lever du Soleil ;
Bientôt, fidèle au joug qu’amour t’impose,
On te verra, la nuit, attendre à son reveil
La Belle au teint de Rose.*

“ *Le jour nuit à la Rose,
Son calice se fane aussitôt qu’on l’expose,
Et son Bouton en devient moins vermeil :
Toi, sous tes yeux si la beauté repose,*

*En vain à tes desirs elle donne l'éveil :
La nuit garde sa rose.*

*" J'aime Bouton de Rose,
Quand, voyant d'un amant la fleur à peine éclos,
Elle lui voile un visage vermeil ;
Mais j'aime mieux l'amant qui dit : Je n'ose,
Quand sur un lit de fleurs il se livre au sommeil,
Près de Bouton de Rose.*

*" L'art de cueillir la Rose,
D'écarter sans danger l'épine qu'elle oppose,
Demande un soin à nul autre pareil :
Bel Adonis cede au joug qu'on l'impose,
Du cœur, et non des sens, en amour prends conseil,
Tu cueilleras la Rose."*

Poor Ariel has sufficient occasion for this advice in the course of the romance, being exposed to most fiery temptations at every turn of the story. Some lovely damsel is continually thrown in his way : but, either by the lucky interference of Orondates, or by his own self-command and surprizing chastity, he escapes from their toils, and preserves his fidelity to his 'Rose-Bud' unsullied. It is now full time for us to drop the enigmatical language of the author, and to inform our readers, briefly, who this 'Rose-bud' is. She is neither more nor less than one of the ladies of Timour's seraglio ; who, before she was carried off to that depôt of beauty, had met with Ariel in a neighbouring valley, 'the circular retreat of rocks ;' where his mother's tomb stood on one side of a little lawn, and a cave shaded with trees on the other, in which Ariel had been wet-nursed-by. "a milk-white hind," though not "immortal and unchanged !" Love at first sight, in course, was the consequence of this interview :—love, which lasts through various trials, and above all through the trial of the reader's patience, (which, however taxed, endures unto the end,) for two thick volumes. Timour forbears to force the virtue which he cannot subdue by any temptations ; and 'the Rose-bud,' after some prodigious escapes on her part, as well as on that of her lover, comes a virgin to his arms. Not so 'the Sprig of Myrtle,' who, we need hardly say, is the lady to whom Kondemir was attached. By a successful stratagem, Timour, having lodged this lady also in his seraglio, persuades her that her lover is false, and thus succeeds in obtaining her willing consent to share his throne and his bed. 'The Sprig of Myrtle,' however, having given herself away in pique rather than in affection, soon quarrels with her tyrant, whose cruelties she cannot brook ; and she is condemned to die by his order. He accompanies the guards, who are to execute the sentence, to a rock

on the way towards the Grotto of Wonders; and there, relenting in his purpose, he leaves the lady chained, while he proceeds to visit his old friend. Orondates obtains the pardon of 'the Sprig of Myrtle,' and takes her into his retreat. Here her hands and face are stained with the juice of a herb that gives them a tawny colour; and, clad in armour, she is dismissed with her lover Kondemir, but unknown to him, to the camp of Louis the IXth, who has reached the vicinity of Mount Libanus with his conquering army of Crusaders.—The national vanity of the author here breaks out most laughably; and several adroit comparisons are instituted between the enthusiastic monarch of the 13th century, and the hero 'who astonished the East' (we admire the selection of the word *astonished*) in the 18th. — Kondemir is charged with a commission to assassinate Louis by Timour's orders: but 'the Sprig of Myrtle,' having preconcerted her plan with Orondates, (who seems, to adopt an idea of his country's antient religion, to represent the principle of good, as Timour personifies the principle of evil,) frustrates his attempt. Meanwhile, Ariel is exposed to the temptations to which we have before alluded, from a fascinating inhabitant of the Pavilion in which he resides, named Adine. She is shut up in one of the cedars that form a part of the ornaments of the Grotto, and comes out of her recess at night, to explain improperly a riddle which Ariel has received concerning his 'Rose-bud;' to endeavour to make him false to her; and to prove that a person with a wrinkled face, and lame of one leg, can be very fascinating. "*Les graces sont de tout age!*" as the French song expresses it. However, this beautiful *boiteuse* is much improved by the means of art (not exactly explained) which she adopts to renovate her youth in the progress of the tale. We are at last rather shocked to find that she is the sister of Ariel; who, according to the riddle when rightly interpreted, is to restore her to reason by this discovery. She, too, had been one of the Sultanas of Timour.—'The Sprig of Myrtle,' we should add, unconvinced by the arguments of Adine (who is a sort of general counsellor) to prove Kondemir's fidelity, is again very unfaithful to him herself, as far as inclination goes, by trying to seduce Ariel from his allegiance. At length, after many struggles to subdue her passion, after going mad, (which part of the story proves that the author had not read the madness of *Clementina** in vain,) and

* See the History of Sir Charles Grandison.—Why are the French so exclusively fond of Richardson as an English Novelist of the first class? Is it his prolixity and detail in describing the progress of sentiment and passion, his metaphysical love-making, which charms them?

recovering from that madness only to sink into a calm despair, the unfortunate 'Sprig of Myrtle' drinks poison; and, just before her death, she sees and is reconciled to her valiant and ill-treated lover.

Poetic justice, however, is sufficiently maintained to make Kondemir the successful combatant in a duel with Timour, which occurs on a revolt of the subjects of the latter against his tyranny. Orondates is chosen King by those subjects; and he transfers the crown, on account of his age, (which is that of about four thousand years, according to common report,) to Ariel and 'the Rose-bud,' who are married after the most picturesque manner. The unhappy Kondemir is not even united to Adine, who remains disengaged at the end of the story, but is constituted a sort of superintendant of a society of *Vestals*, (that is, a Turkish Magdalen Hospital, we suppose,) who supply the place of Timour's seraglio. All his Houris and Angels, who peopled his extensive gardens, are dismissed and disbanded; and the gardens themselves are thrown open, like those at Kensington, to the public.

We have not only omitted many of the intermediate links in the chain of this Arabian history, but have taken no notice of some entire descriptions which conduce to the disclosure of the plot, and which in themselves possess considerable merit:—such, for instance, as that of a 'Fête of clemency' held by Timour, in which an esplanade containing some thousands of spectators sinks at once into the earth, by a mechanical apparatus in the hollow rocks beneath. These wretches were a part of his rebellious subjects, whom he destroyed in this manner, on a night of thunder and lightning, to make the rest of the people believe that it was a judgment from heaven. Some of the adventures and hair-breadth escapes of 'the Sprig of Myrtle' are also well-imagined and related; and the fire and spirit of her character are happily contrasted with the sweetness and gentleness of 'the Rose-bud.' The scene preceding the marriage of the latter with Ariel is exceedingly striking. They are both carried into the cemetery belonging to the ancestors of Timour, and laid down among the dead; having been forced to drink a sleeping potion, as a preparative to a plot of separation which the Sultan was meditating against them. They wake in their coffins, and, by the light of some camphorated lamps, contemplate each other's faces, pale and haggard as death! — The only remaining traits in the story which we can mention are the following. The discovery is made by Orondates, from some hieroglyphical inscriptions on an obelisk in the 'circular retreat of rocks,' (to which, and to the riddle concerning 'the Rose-bud,' he finds a clue in a visit to Egypt,) that Ariel and
Adine

Adine are descendants of his own. His son married a daughter of Lusignan, King of Cyprus, and from him they descend. They have also a little cousin, called Cherubim, as the author childishly enough informs us, who adds to the family-groupe at the end of the fable :— but how has Orondates lived four thousand years ? Simply thus. By a stratagem similar to that which perpetuates the existence and the identity of the Lama of Tibet in the minds of the people, Orondates, the founder of the family, *who assisted Belus to embellish Babylon*, lived for ages in the name and character of his descendants. He built the Grotto of Wonders, with forty chambers and forty tombs. Each son took the name of his father in succession, to the number of forty ; Orondates, the conjurer of the romance before us, being the last. They were all great natural philosophers, and all fortunately lived to be nearly a hundred years old. The accumulated science of them all centered in our Sage. His approaching death would close the last chamber and the last tomb ; and, in a parting speech to his countrymen, he removes from their eyes the veil of his supernatural longevities, and of his intercourse with heaven, and kindly enlightens them with the foregoing most probable story ! Yet, extravagant as it is, we must repeat our remark that, to the lovers of romance, it is interesting even to the conclusion. We had indeed ourselves occasion (being perhaps too grave for such frivolous amusements) to remember often, in the perusal of the work, our duty to read it through ; and we cannot help recommending to any persons, who may be similarly employed with ourselves, a constant recollection of this little duty on all occasions, as the best antidote to hasty prejudices and premature opinions, if not the most efficacious specific against any somnolent propensities which they may be inclined to indulge.—We shall now endeavour to select some passages for translation which may entertain our readers, and give them a general notion of the manner in which the sketch of the story above exhibited is filled up and finished.

We shall chuse the description of Ariel's first meeting with his ' Rose-bud,' as she relates it herself in a soliloquy, or an address to a picture which she has drawn from memory of the scene in which they met. This picture, exciting the jealousy of Timour, occasions several interesting events.—After having thanked her father for enabling her to enjoy the visionary pleasure which her drawing affords her, the fair artist proceeds :

' Look ! how happy I have been, in meeting with this situation in Libanus, for the scene of my subject. How does this circular inclosure of dry and naked rocks bring out the rich vegetation of the plain !

plain ! and this closing day, how does it soften the soul without saddening it ! and this uncertain light of the moon, that trembles on the surface of the rivulet ! all, even to the wandering hind, adds an inexpressible charm to this solitude. See a grand figure in the foreground that attracts our whole attention ; and it is not without design that I have placed him at an equal distance between a tomb and a cradle. My father !—the mind, left to itself and unassisted, cannot discover these ideas. It must have a secret inspiration ; and I will confess, with a frankness which will not displease you, that you were not my inspirer.’—‘ Yes, long as the interval may be, he remembers, perhaps, the delightful scene of our rencontre.—I was sitting on the bank of the rivulet, not far from the island of Palm-trees, caressing a hind which seemed to offer itself to my fondness, when, on a sudden, you appeared before me : mutual surprize kept us long silent. At length, with timidity, and your voice dying on your rosy lips, you offered me your services, which I accepted with embarrassment, and without daring to lift up my eyes. By degrees, your look grew more animated, your colour increased ; you talked to me those agreeable nothings which good manners suggest in the presence of women, but which affect us, in spite of ourselves, when they are tinctured with sentiment. I blushed, and, not daring to answer you, placed my hand with tenderness on the hind, which was in effect to place it on your bosom ; and, from its sweet palpitations, I fully felt that your heart understood the language of mine.—At the end of an hour, we had no secrets to impart to each other. I inquired your family with anxiety ; and you told me, not without shedding tears, that you clung by only one thread to nature !—by the tomb of your father, and by your cradle. These words caused me to muse, for they were profound without any effort to be so. — I have preserved this tomb and this cradle in my picture : but what became of me, when, you having asked my name, and having learnt it from me, I saw you gather in an instant a rose-bud, and place it on your bosom ; promising to replace it every day, until that moment (you said, with a lower tone of voice) when the constant habit of looking at my real form would put an end to your necessity of contemplating my resemblance.’

Perhaps, we should apologize to our severer students for this sentimental extract, had we not another class of readers to consult ; and it would indeed be an unfair neglect of their claims, if the review of a romance did not furnish some materials for the indulgence of their taste.

We were inclined to think, from several passages of the work, particularly from the excessive admiration of the beauty of the Hero which the *author* is continually betraying, that we ought rather to say the *authoress*. Some of the sentiments, indeed, are worthy of the most delicate female : but many of the descriptions and opinions, as we have seen, are directly the reverse. Occasionally, too, we have a trait of female character discovered in some particular feeling of the writer : — but these are difficult points to decide.—‘ That beauty’ (page 279. Vol. I.)

‘ who

‘who is most tormented by her desires, but who still knows how to blush, even when she most wishes to be conquered, still wishes to seem to yield only to a conqueror.’ — Several charming little touches of modesty occur even in the most warm of the descriptions; and none of the frail beauties of this romance have forgotten ‘how to blush.’ — ‘Women (page 2. vol. 2.) have an internal *tact*, which prevents them from mistaking what they have to fear or to hope from their rivals in love.’ The struggles between the pity and the softer sentiment in Ariel’s breast, which he severally feels for the two principal rivals in the contest for his affections, are touchingly described. ‘One of these two beauties was unfortunate; and a man of any feeling will sometimes waver in his tenderness, when he sees love in this scale of the balance, and in that, affliction.’ Vol. 2. page 9.

At the end of the first volume, is a strange but entertaining account of a fictitious Egyptian academy which Orondates visited, and to which he gave a copy of the *Statutes of the Academy of Charlemagne*, sent by that monarch to the Caliph Haroun Alraschid, (as we must still beg leave to call him,) for his inspection and approbation. The Caliph translated them into Arabic, and the author has restored them to their original French! — May we not ask how will this display of the love of literature in Charlemagne please his supposed antitype, Bonaparte? Is the decree forgotten, which forbids the classical students of Paris to learn more Greek than will serve them to explain the technical terms of science, or more Latin than will suffice to enable them to construe Cæsar’s commentaries? ‘Every branch of human knowledge was cultivated in the Academy of Charlemagne, particularly Grammar, Antiquities, Poetry, Eloquence, the Mathematics, and Astronomy. He excluded no great talent whatever from his protection,’ &c. &c. Enough of the highly-coloured picture that follows is borrowed from history, to make the panegyrists of the modern Charlemagne blush for his lamentable inferiority to his original:

“Look here, upon this picture, and on this!”

We will do the author the justice to say that, notwithstanding the servility of his preface, he has not drawn this common French parallel. On the contrary, we will select one of his expiatory sentences against a military despotism. Describing the certainty of frequent revolts under such a government, he says:

‘Such is the eternal fate of those military governments which frantic despots attempt to organize. They make use of them to fix the weight of their brazen sceptre on a murmuring people; and they do not perceive that they hurt themselves as much as the wretches
whom

whom they oppress. This unnatural government is a dagger with a double edge; which, drawn from its sheath by unskilful hands, re-acts on the tyrant after it has stricken the slave.'

As we think that these bursts of indignation are very singularly observable in French writers at present, and form a striking contrast by their general declamation against tyranny (all, alas! that is permitted them) to the particular doses of flattery which are so largely offered to the reigning power, we have wished to call the attention of our readers to such passages in the work before us, which are very numerous. Not less striking is a sentence in the last speech of Orondates, by a translation of which we shall conclude this article. 'Create for yourselves a new monarchy, *balanced by different powers*, and so dependent on your laws, that the transient will of the man whom you crown shall never be able to offer violence to the will of the public, which alone ought to exercise the supreme authority.' Vol. ii. page 482.

ART. II. *La Parthénéide, &c.*; i. e. The Partheneid, a Poem, translated from the German of M. J. BAGGESEN. 12mo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s.

WE understand that the original of this work appeared in Germany in the year 1803, and was so very favourably received that it has been reprinted twice in the interval between that period and the present. The first edition was copied, without alteration, in the second; but the third was considerably amended. Satisfied, however, from the criticisms of others, and from his own ideas, that he could still farther improve his poem, the author has undertaken a fresh revision and correction, and has communicated the results to his French translator; so that the present French edition has an opportunity of appearing in a perfect state before the original. Being also executed under the inspection and the auspices of M. BAGGESEN himself, the liberties which it professes to take with his composition were sanctioned by him; and, in a word, if we can rely on the whole account of the translator, never was a version of any poem offered to the public with more likelihood of rendering justice to its archetype. In one most material respect, however, it must be deficient in fidelity of representation. M. BAGGESEN, following the example of *M. J. H. Voss*, of *Kleist*, of *Klopstock*, &c. has endeavoured to harmonize the German language into hexameter verse; and if these attempts (of which we have no opportunity of judging at this moment) were not more fortunate than the earlier or the later efforts

of

of our own countrymen to write English hexameters, we have no reason to regret that the present poem has been rendered into French prose.

In a very long but very sensible preface, the translator embraces a variety of subjects. He descants on the hacknied theme of pastoral poetry: but, in assigning a wider sphere than is usually allotted to the Idyll, we think that he has thrown out some ingenious if not novel ideas. He conceives rural scenery alone to be essential to this species of composition; and he justly observes, that a much higher tone is given to it by the introduction of characters of a condition and quality superior even to the poetical shepherd. To illustrate his notion, he quotes, as shorter specimens of the calm yet dignified sort of subject which is appropriate to the Idyll, the episodical description of the future state of the virtuous in the Elysium of Virgil; the flight of Erminia to the banks of Jordan, in the *Jerusalem Delivered*; and the arrival of Gama at the island of the Nereids, in the *Lusiad*. The first and the last of these references are certainly very much to his purpose; and perhaps the delightful picture of our first parents in Milton's Garden of Eden is equally appropriate. We confess, at least, that we were pleased to see

“ Ah! gentle pair, you little think how nigh

“ Your change approaches” —

quoted, in this part of his dissertation, by the French critic, with a due feeling of admiration. He proceeds to compare the *Louisa* of M. J. H. Voss, the *Herman and Dorothea* of Goëthe, and the *Alps* of Haller, with the *Partheneid*. The two former poems resemble the present, inasmuch as they are founded on the scenes and incidents of common life, and repose, as it were, on the bosom of nature, uncontaminated by the vices and unchecked by the forms of a too luxurious state of refinement. Yet the characters are persons of cultivated minds, elegant in their simplicity, and enlightened in their pleasures. The *Alps* of Haller admit of a comparison with the poem before us only in one point of view: the place, in which the descriptive powers of both writers is called forth, is the same: but the satirical genius of Haller destroys that uniform character of tranquillity and innocence, on which the principal charm of the Idyll (if the term be limited to this species of composition) may be said to depend.

The *Partheneid* has again another characteristic peculiar to itself. The mythology of Greece is adapted to the natural and unimportant tenour of its events; if not in a wholly unexceptionable manner, certainly with less awkwardness than we could

could have supposed possible from the difficulty and danger of the undertaking. The heathen inhabitants of Olympus, banished from their antient home by the Northern conquerors of Europe, take refuge in the Alps; and here, to our astonishment, we find our old acquaintance, Jupiter, somewhat spiritualized indeed, but surrounded with his synod of celestials, and among the most prominent, Mercury and Cupid. On the top of the highest mountain in Switzerland, sits enthroned the heavenly Venus; not

“ The reeling Goddess with the zoneless waist,”

but the patroness of chaste affection, and the parent of every noble sentiment in the bosom of mankind. The occasional and transient glimpses which we catch of this truly divine being are very enchanting, and form by far the best proof of the taste, if not of the genius, of the author: — but it is time for us to give a short abstract of the simple story of the poem; and to present our readers with some specimens of the manner in which the natural events, and the supernatural machinery, are respectively exhibited.

An inhabitant of Switzerland, of the name of Andros, a worthy man, and simple in his manners, — of a noble disposition, in a word, and a cultivated mind, — had three daughters, who are as amiable as they are beautiful. They conceive an inclination to visit the most picturesque and curious part of the high Alps of the canton of Berne. Andros consents to this excursion, which is so eagerly desired; and he chuses an opportunity to declare his consent, which not only gives it more value and importance to them, but also suggests a particular motive to himself. Instead of conducting his daughters in person, he entrusts this charge to Norfrank, a young stranger of the most exalted character, who for a long time has been his guest and friend, and whom he in secret wished to become his son-in-law. Norfrank accepts so agreeable a commission, as an honourable mark of confidence; and the tour to the mountains finishes, as it was intended, to the satisfaction of every body. This is the simple foundation of the poem: but the author has found means, by some interesting accessories, to extend, to build on, and to embellish this foundation, of itself so slight and contracted.

Mercury, introduced into the action as the God who presides over the common interests of life, or rather over the exclusive and entire worship of those interests, is angry to see Norfrank, whom he detests, chosen for a guide to the three sisters, in preference to a rich citizen of Berne, whom he patronizes; and therefore he first attempts to hinder the proposed
tour:

tour : but, not succeeding, he interests Cupid in the scheme of vengeance which he plots against Norfrank. The sly god inspires the youthful poet (for such he is, and no bad hero for a poem, or for an excursion on the mountains,) with a violent attachment to Myris, the youngest and the loveliest of the sisters ; throwing many temptations in his way, to suffer this passion to burst out in a blameable manner. The virtue of Norfrank is thus exposed to the most delicate trials : but, assisted by the deities who protect him, (Apollo and Urania,) he triumphs over the hatred of Mercury and the stratagems of Cupid, and conducts his companions innocently and happily to the end of their tour. Meanwhile, Andros, and Theone his wife, who have followed the young party without their knowledge, meet them on their return ; and Norfrank, declaring his love, receives the hand of Myris. The name of the poem, *Partheneid*, might as well have been rendered *Virgineid* ; in reference to the heroines, and to the principal object in their tour, the mountain called *the Virgin*. The action ends on the fifth day.

Such is this plain but not inelegant tale. We confess that we were curious to see how the difficulties of describing, in poetic language, such familiar objects and incidents as must arise from a subject of this nature, could be surmounted : in poetic language, we say, for the French style of this translator evidently aspires to become the style of *Florian* in his best passages ; and indeed we are sometimes reminded, though in the degree in which a shadow reflects a substance, of the delightful author of *Estelle*.

The most ornamented prose, however, approaches so much nearer to conversation than heroic verse, that we cannot by any means collect from this translation how the original poem overcomes the difficulties in question : — how, for instance, without falling into the gross burlesque, Mercury can be described as descending into the inn-yard of a Swiss town, and inciting the coachman of ‘ a commodious vehicle ’ to proceed without his passengers, in legitimate German hexameters. In the French prose, indeed, the ludicrous nature of the subject is adroitly lessened by a mixture of playfulness and seriousness of manner. Moreover, after the passengers resolve to set out on foot, we cannot conceive how the delicacy even of the humbler Epic (of the Idyll, if the translator pleases,) can be preserved, when we are told in words equivalent to those which we beg leave to subjoin in Latin, that, from the brows of the female travellers, *sudor fluit undique rivis*. The scene at the little cottage among the mountains, where the fair damsels, after their hot and fatiguing walk, enjoy a foot-bath at night,

Is also of an ambiguous sort ; and yet so many little touches of nature, and those of a perfectly delicate kind, are displayed in this scene, that we are much more disposed to admire the skill with which the author has managed his subject, than fastidiously to condemn his choice of it.—We proceed to our promised extracts :

‘ Under the shade of some linden trees, from a green hillock at the side of the path, gushes out a natural fountain, which forms a cool and refreshing basin among the neighbouring rocks. Hither the fair journeyers resort ; and, having satisfied their thirst, and plunged their lily-hands into the stream which colours them with a soft carnation, they await the approach of their modest guide.

‘ This hero of the tour had not yet arrived at the delicious fountain. The pleasure of seeing his sweet companions relieve their thirst had made him stand aloof and forget his own : but he felt himself all at once inflamed with redoubled ardour, and, advancing forwards to the three nymphs, “ Charming immortals ! ” he exclaimed, in a tone of inspiration, “ the mystery which you have hitherto hidden from your conductor now develops itself. Yes, you are three of the Nymphs of Helicon, or the three Graces, their divine associates. O happy, happy destiny ! Frail Mortal ! I am admitted to the company of the deities ! ”

‘ At this sudden transport, the sisters blushed and smiled at the same time. They declined with *naïveté* the appellation of immortals, and chided Norfrank for his enthusiastic flattery : but the soft tone of their complaint, the smile which mingled with their modest reproof, and the heavenly blush which suffused their countenances, all confirmed the imagination of the happy Norfrank, and justified his rapture. “ Yes, this is Helicon,” he cried again, “ this is the fountain Aganippe ! Crown then your favours, ye divine beings ! and suffer my lips to drink the consecrated water from the very hands of the Graces.”

‘ Did the lovely nymphs not comprehend the request of Norfrank, or did they only feign a little difficulty in penetrating it ? This is a question which it is not easy for a mortal to resolve : but the suppliant made himself understood by his gestures. Bending on one knee before the sisters, he looks at them, his lips apart, and one of his hands extended, the palm of it representing the shape of a cup : with the other hand he points out to them, by turns, their own hands, and the spouting waters of the fountain. Immediately each of them, advancing her hands, fresh coloured with the lively tint of health, to the mouth of the fountain, held them in the form of a ruby cup, and then presented them full of water to the eager lips of the kneeling Norfrank. He, rapt by fancy in the circle of the deities, believed that he was imbibing their nectar. Immortal Psyche ! it is thus, it is with the same delight, that thy mysterious butterfly drinks the celestial dew in the chalice of the flower ; or that thou thyself inhaledst oblivion of thy life on earth at the fountains of Elysium ! Three times the hands of each of the Graces served for a cup to Norfrank ; and nine times the happy youth imbibed a draught more exhilarating than the water of Hippocrene.’

Surely, this pleasant little scene would form an attractive subject for the pencil.

We shall now present our readers with a description of a different nature,—with a picture which will form a striking contrast to the preceding. —The tourists arrive at a narrow and craggy pass in the Alps, not far distant from the Peak of Terror. Here it is absolutely necessary that a *bandeau* should be fastened round the eyes of the fair travellers; and that Norfrank should carry them, one by one, over the dangerous precipice which is the only path-way across the abyss. He has already lifted Daphne in his arms, and transported her in safety to the opposite bank: Cynthia also has been safely deposited at the side of her sister; and the youth returns with a beating heart for his best-beloved, for the gentle, the lovely Myris. —Cupid, who has hitherto been frustrated in all his designs against the unsullied purity of the heart of Norfrank, now, burning with revenge, ascends to the summit of the Peak of Terror, and invokes the assistance of a deity who sits enthroned on the highest point of the mountain:

* Here, on his inaccessible seat, dwells the formidable Power; a prodigy among the immortals, whom they themselves do not approach without alarm. Such is the monarch of Void and Nothing, called Dizziness* by men, and without a name in Heaven. He was engendered in the antient horrors of Chaos, from the fortuitous union of the Firmament with Infernal Night†. Utter overthrow, confusion, disorder, the flitting assemblage of repugnant substances and forms,—all these he cherishes, and struggles to produce. Though he cannot, without a pang which would annihilate a mortal, look at the spheres that roll throughout the expansion of space, or contemplate the invariable creations of nature, yet he delights to watch over the works of man. Sometimes, immoveable and silent, from the height of his throne of ice, he throws his wandering eye over the depth of the Void; and sometimes, agitated and threatening, he hovers on the top of the mountains, haunts the precipices, and lurks in their hollow foundations. Woe to the passenger who then approaches the brink of a precipice! He feels, all at once, the ground fly from beneath his feet; he sees the sky run back rapidly above him, and the surrounding mountains roll in circles about his head.

Cupid, having mounted to the throne of this tremendous Being, ('where the blasphemous thought of the Atheist, like a deadly vapour exhaled from hell, hardly dares to ascend,') beseeches his assistance, and engages him in the attempted destruction of Norfrank:

While his heart is pressed close to the heart of his precious burden; while the virgin-forehead of his love approaches his burning brows; while an arm of alabaster embraces his neck; with trembling

* Or "Vertigo."

† Nat. Lee never exceeded this.

steps,

steps, and every nerve weakened by a delicious and resistless languor, Norfrank advances to the fatal precipice. At this very moment the Monarch of the Peak of Terror descends with headlong flight from his abode, enveloped in a cloud of darkness. Before he plunges into the gulph below, he hovers for an instant over the head of Norfrank, and Norfrank at that moment begins to grow pale and to shudder. By degrees his senses fail him;—every thing changes, is displaced, and confounds itself before his eyes! The path appears more precipitous; the abyss deeper; the rock more slippery. He wishes to pursue his way; he totters: he has only strength to stop himself, but none to advance a step. Myris perceives the weakness of Norfrank; she trembles, and her alarm redoubles the anxiety of the youth. But it is decided!—Norfrank can support himself no longer; he feels for the first time the influence of the dreaded Deity of the Alps; he sees for the first time, discovered to open view, that hateful and gigantic prodigy; he sees him burst, with the impetuosity of a thunderbolt, from the cloud that concealed him, plunge into the mid hollow between the rocks, and there balance himself, menacing and furious! He shakes in one hand a vast shield, on the circumference of which are traced ten thousand frightful forms and mingled phantoms. The surface is hollow, and glitters with a magic polish; which turns all the objects of nature into wavering images, faithless to their models, confused, and of a disordered grandeur. Scarcely has Norfrank cast one glance on this shield, when he seems to behold the mountains glide away suddenly to the confines of the horizon, and their reversed summits lengthen themselves immeasurably downwards into the void! The vault of heaven (such is the hideous illusion of his sight) has instantly sunken to the depths of the earth; and the earth has leapt up to the height of heaven. He turns, and sees the whole universe turn with him, with accelerated speed, in a vortex which whirls round throughout all immensity!

We may allow that this passage displays something sublime, if not original*. It is perhaps too much dilated, but it must be remembered that this is a translation of a translation.—We should not leave our readers in so terrible a state of suspense, notwithstanding our previous abstract of the story: but it will be sufficient to say that Norfrank, struggling as heroically as he can against the Dæmon of Dizziness, sinks down reluctantly to the ground, and suffers his lovely burthen to disentangle herself from his arms. While they are in this perilous situation, on the edge of the precipice, Apollo (who, as we premised, is leagued with Urania in defence of the good cause,) commands the sun to melt the snows in the cavities of the rocks above; and an enormous *avalanche* rushing down, *without*

* We confess that it is original to us, according to our present recollection. The personification of Danger in Collins, grand as the sketch is, has nothing in common with the above.

injury to the travellers, fills up the chasm in their path, and enables them to rejoin each other in safety.

We must here close our remarks and extracts; only observing, in general, that we have derived considerable pleasure from the perusal of this little volume, and that we strongly recommend it to our fair countrywomen. It would certainly heighten the amusement of an excursion through the beautiful scenes of this tour, to have read the *Partheneid* previously to setting out. The Gods and Goddesses would be rather stale and insipid fellow-travellers, perhaps, to a classical party; yet, as they are the personified attributes of mind more than our genuine mythological acquaintances, they might be endured on all occasions, and sometimes even welcomed.—We should add that a few notes, containing more accurate topographical information than the text supplies, are subjoined; and that it considerably increases the curiosity which we feel to become acquainted with the original of this poem, to know that the author of German hexameters is not a German by birth, but Professor of Belles Lettres in the University of Copenhagen.—Among a large number of Danish poems, and of other German compositions, he has published some extracts from an Epic called "*Oceania*," on the last expedition of Captain Cook.

ART. III. *Système sexuel des Végétaux, &c. i. e.* The Sexual System of Vegetables, according to the Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species, with their Characters and Differences, by Charles Linné. Translated, for the first Time, into French, in conformity with the Editions of Murray, Person, [Persoon,] and Willdenow; enlarged and enriched with preliminary Views, various Notes, a Concordance with the Method of Tournefort, and the natural Families of Jussieu, &c. &c. By N. JOLYCLERC, Emeritus Professor of Belles Lettres, Mathematics, Chemistry, and Natural History, Member of several learned Societies, &c. &c. The Second Edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s. in Boards.

THAT the scheme of arranging plants, and of referring them to distinct and appropriate denominations, which was proposed by Tournefort, possesses very considerable merit, will be readily admitted by every individual who is qualified to judge of the subject, and who reflects on the low state of botanical science when that celebrated writer commenced his career of study and observation. In so far as the *philosophy* of arrangement is concerned, the later distribution of the vegetable tribes by De Jussieu likewise claims no common praise, because it assumes for its basis the real or supposed alliances of nature:

but as a commodious and practical instrument of recognition and reference, no mode of arrangement has been hitherto framed which will bear to be compared with that of the great Swedish naturalist. Had its author been born and bred in the French capital, his name would probably have resounded from the Channel to the Mediterranean, and his orderly array of the vegetable kingdom would have been celebrated as one of the most splendid efforts of the human mind: but his lot was cast in a corner of Europe which is remarkable neither for the amenity of its climate nor its political importance; and on the banks of the Seine his system was first violently opposed, then derided, and then, for a time, nearly forgotten. In this instance, however, as in many others, reason has slowly resumed her sway, and tardy justice has visited the fame of the departed: "*respexit tamen, et longe post tempore venit.*" To others we leave the amusing exercise of tracing the origin and progress of that ascendancy which the Linnéan school has gradually obtained, even in France; and to note when its synonyms were first placed beside those of *Tournefort*, when the pre-*cedence* of the latter was reversed, when explanations of the Northern method began to issue from the Parisian press, and when the language of *Tournefort* was thrown into shade. It is our more immediate duty to announce the work before us as a sure indication of the triumph of sober sense and reason over national vanity, and as a tribute of respectful homage to merit too long neglected.

The general objects of these volumes are sufficiently recited in the title-page; and the translator very obligingly absolves us from the hacknied routine of a dedication, *avant-propos*, preface, and introduction, by absolving himself from the trouble of composing them. His *preliminary notions*, as he is pleased to term them, may really be regarded as constituting a legitimate portion of the work; for they embrace definitions of the *vegetable kingdom*, of the terms *plant*, *tree*, *shrub*, &c. with some account of the root, stem, leaves, and other important parts of the vegetable structure, and a few very cursory hints relative to the fruit, seed, vegetation, tastes, odours, and colours of plants, &c. &c. The discussion of these important and interesting topics, including a view of the sexual system, is condensed into the narrow limits of twenty-seven octavo pages: a degree of reduction which renders the whole of very little consequence, even in an elementary point of view; and which seems to be at variance with the following sentiment, expressed as nearly as possible in the writer's own language: "He only is worthy of the name of botanist, who usefully distributes the fruits of his knowledge in human society at large," &c. In vain have we searched these preliminary

pages for the slightest allusion to the ingenious objections which have been urged against the grand principle of the Linnéan classification of plants, namely, their sexuality; and yet it behoved their author to have weighed with candour the various arguments by which it has been assailed. A sketch of the life and character of the founder of the system which is here unfolded would in like manner have formed a suitable addition to the work; while a more detailed history of the structure of plants, and of the functions of their respective organs, might have invited many of the uninitiated to pay their homage in the temple of Flora.

It deserves, however, to be remarked that, if M. JOLYCLERC's statements are in some material respects scanty and superficial, they are very seldom incorrect, and that his ideas are uniformly expressed with much neatness and precision. If we were inclined to carp at the accuracy of any of his positions, we might advert to his marginal illustration of the increase of mineral substances by juxta position, because it intimates, *without limitation*, that stones are augmented in bulk by the *agglutination of successive layers* of new materials. We likewise suspect that he is disposed to lay too much stress on the indication of the chemical analysis of vegetables; as if he were not aware that kindred, nay, even identical, results are reported to have been obtained from plants endued with properties notoriously dissimilar; for example, from hemlock and cabbage; and that new combinations may take place during the process, so as to render this mode of investigation completely deceptive.

The register of vegetable species, with which we are here presented, is by no means so numerous as we had expected to find it: but the work of translation and exposition appears to have proceeded with an uniform regard to fidelity, simplicity, and terseness. Our scientific readers will be at no loss to form an opinion of the style and manner of the performance from a short passage or two, which we shall extract at random;

♂ PENTANDRIE MONOGYNIE.

HELIOTROPE. Heliotropium. Tournef. cl. 2. Infundib. sect. 4. Juss., famille des Borraginées.

Corolle hippocratérisforme, 5-fide, à dents entremêlées; gorge close (épi tourné d'un seul côté, recourbé.)

*H. Peruvianum. Feuilles lancéolées, ovales; tige souligneuse; épis nombreux, aggrégés, en corymbe, Au Pérou. (viv.) **

H. indi.

* * The stalks rise to the height of two feet; they are woody, rough, and give out long branches below. The leaves are elliptical, oval, oblong, marked with lines, downy, rough, green on both sides,

H. indicum. Feuilles cordiformes, ovales, aiguës, un peu rudes ; épis solitaires ; fruits bifides. Aux Indes. (ann.)[¶]

H. parviflorum. Feuilles ovales, ridées, rudes, opposées, alternes ; épis conjugués. Aux Barbades †.

H. Europæum. Feuilles ovales, très-entières, velues, ridées ; épis conjugués. Europe. (ann.)

H. supinum. Feuilles ovales, très-entières, velues, plissées ; épis solitaires. Montpellier. (ann.)

H. fruticosum. Feuilles linéaires, lancéolées, poilues ; épis solitaires, sessiles. Jamaïque. (vivace) ‡

H. curassavicum. Feuilles lancéolées, linéaires, glabres, sans nervures ; épis conjugués. Amérique. (ann.) §

H. orientale. Feuilles linéaires, glabres, sans nervures ; fleurs éparses, latérales. Asie. (ann.)

H. gnaphalodes. Feuilles linéaires, obtuses, velues ; pedoncules dichotômes ; épis des fleurs quaternés ; tiges souligneuses. Jamaïque. (vivace)'

In the class *Syngenesia*, the several species of *Tussilago* are thus particularized :

' *TUSSILAGE*, *Tussilago*. Tournef. cl. 14. Radiées. sect. 1. Petasites. cl. 12. Floscul. sect. 2. Jussieu, famille des Corymbifères.

Réceptacle nu : aigrette simple : écailles du calice égales, égales au disque, comme membraneuses.

T. anandria. Hampe uniflore, écaillée, relevée ; feuilles lyrées, ovales. Sibérie. (vivace)

T. dentata. Hampe uniflore, sans bractées ; feuilles lancéolées, dentées, velues. Amérique.

T. nutans. Hampe uniflore, sans bractées ; fleur penchée ; feuilles lyrées, obtuses. Amérique.

T. Alpina. Hampe uniflore, comme nue ; feuilles cordiformes, orbiculées, crénelées. Alpes. (vivace)

T. discolor. Hampe uniflore, comme nue ; feuilles cordiformes, orbiculées, crénelées, luisantes en dessus, blanches de duvet en dessous. Autric.

T. sylvestris. Hampe comme uniflore, comme nue ; feuilles cordiformes, orbiculées, incisées, lobées. Autric.

T. farfara. Hampe uniflore, imbriquée, feuilles comme cordiformes, anguleuses, denticulées. Europe. (vivace)

T. Japonica. Fleurs alternes, radiées. Au Japon.

T. frigida. Thyse fastigié : fleurs radiées. Alpes. (vivace) ||

and borne on short peduncles ; the latter, towards their extremity, are bristly, bifid, and often dichotomous ; the corols are blueish, as in the following species.'

' * The leaves are cordiform, spatula-shaped, and somewhat soft.'

' † The leaves are alternate in the upper parts.'

' ‡ The upper leaves are rough, rolled on the edges, and reflected at their summit.'

' § The leaves are glaucous, and, as it were, fleshy.'

' || This species varies with flosculous and radiated flowers.'

T. Alba. Thyrsa fastigié; fleurons femelles nus, en petit nombre, Europe. (vivace)

T. hybrida. Thyrsa oblong; fleurons femelles nus, nombreux. Allemagne. (vivace)

T. petasites. Thyrsa ovale; fleurons femelles nus, en petit nombre, Europe tempérée. (vivace) *

The habitations which M. JOLYCLERC assigns to many species are too limited in point of extent; an oversight which might mislead the uninformed, and induce them to believe that the range of certain plants is more circumscribed than it is in fact. Thus, *Southern Europe* is set down as the country of *Geranium dissectum*, which is a well-known native of Great Britain; *Italy* is quoted as the residence of *Lavatera arborea*, which is, however, indigenous both to Cornwall and Scotland; and *Zostera marina*, which occurs in such profusion in various districts of our own shores, is represented as merely an inhabitant of the Baltic. — The short annotations in the margin will, generally, be found serviceable to those persons who may have occasion to consult the work, because they most frequently point to some particularities independent of the specific characters laid down in the text; and a very few of them intimate some remarkable properties or uses. We notice the most striking of this latter description, only premising our regret that they are not much more numerous.

The stem of *Vitis Indica* is filled with very pure and cold water, which affords a grateful beverage to the thirsty inhabitants of warm countries. — The berries of *Sepindus Saponaria*, and the flowers of *Lychnis Chalconica*, are occasionally used as soap. — The seeds of *Nymphaea nelumbo*, even previously to germination, contain perfect leaves. — On touching the under part of *Cistus helianthemum*, especially in the morning, the sexual parts are observed to approximate, and apparently to embrace. — *Ranunculus sceleratus*, notwithstanding its name and highly acrid disposition, is eatable when boiled. — The flowers of *Hebenstretia dentata* are inodorous in the morning, nauseously fetid at noon, and delightfully fragrant towards evening. — The leaves of *Erithryna corallodendron*, in a south exposure, close together as in sleep. — *Hedysarum vespertilionis* is cultivated in China on account of the beauty of the flowers, which, in serene weather, figure like so many butterflies on the wing. — The juice of *Aristolochia anguicida*, mixed with saliva, and put into a serpent's mouth, affects the creature to such a degree that it may, for some time, be handled with impunity: but it soon resumes the exercise of its poisonous faculty.

* * Only female flowers, mixed with such as are hermaphrodite.*

The appearance of this second edition of a French translation of the *Systema Vegetabilium*, with many important additions and improvements, not only attests the progressive state of botanical science on the other side of the water, but holds out a flattering encouragement to the conductor of the work to atone for those *sins of omission* to which we have alluded, in the event of another impression; especially as a considerable quantity of fresh materials might be easily introduced, without deranging the plan of the publication, or swelling it to an inconvenient size.

ART. IV. *Philosophie Zoologique, &c.*; i. e. Zoological Philosophy, or an Exposition of those Considerations which relate to the Natural History of Animals; to the Diversity of their Organization, and of the Faculties derived from it; to the physical Causes which maintain Life within them, and give rise to the Movements which they perform; to those, in short, which produce either the Feeling or the Intellect with which they may be indued. By J. B. P. A. LAMARCK, Professor of Zoology in the Museum of Natural History, &c. &c. 2 Vol. 8vo. Paris. 1809.

FOR the accommodation of his pupils, Professor LAMARCK was desirous of exhibiting a written sketch of those general principles which refer to the study of animals. With the view, however, of arriving at legitimate results, he perceived the necessity of surveying the various organization of living creatures, and of noting the most important differences which obtain among those of each family, order, and class, until he found himself insensibly drawn into inquiries of more extended range, and into the examination of some of the most difficult zoological problems. That his speculations on the various modes and forms of animal existence should have led him to the discovery of a scale of being, which may be reckoned either in the ascending or the descending series, needs not to excite our surprize: but it does not follow, as an infallible consequence, that nature first produced the most simple and then the more complex organized structures, regularly proceeding in the order of their complication. How, indeed, can our limited faculties ever be able to ascertain in what degrees of succession the different races of animals assumed their stations on our globe, or whether all did not receive their origin, simultaneously, by the fiat of the Almighty? While, however, the existence of a gradation of beings does not necessarily imply its primary evolution in the order of that gradation, it will be readily conceded that the elementary constituents of vitality will be best understood by contemplating the phenomena of life,

life, in its lowest and most imperfect stages; and that, accordingly, the laws of its economy begin to be unfolded with more satisfactory evidence, since the history of the least perfect animals with which we are acquainted has formed an object of serious study.

As we may safely presume that the conditions necessary to vitality are not only complete in the least compounded state of organization, but are reduced, moreover, to their most simple term, a question of some consequence naturally occurs; namely, are modes of organization, destined to acquire gradually greater degrees of complexity, deducible from these simple forms? One great object of the present treatise is to prove the affirmative of this inquiry, from the two following considerations:

‘First, it is evinced by many known facts that the continued employment of an organ tends to its developement, strengthens it, and even enlarges it; whereas defect of employment, become habitual with respect to the organ, is prejudicial to its developement, injures it, reduces it by slow degrees, and if permitted to subsist in all the individuals which have sprung from one another, during a long series of generations, will terminate in its extinction. Hence, we may conceive that a change of circumstances constraining the individuals of a race of animals to change their habits, the organs which are least employed gradually die away, while those which are more frequently exercised are more completely unfolded, and acquire vigour and dimensions proportioned to the habitual employment to which these individuals have subjected them.

‘Secondly, when I reflected on the moving power of the fluids, in the very yielding parts which contain them, I was soon convinced that, in proportion as the fluids of an organized body have their motion accelerated, these fluids modify the cellular tissue in which they move, opening passages, and forming various canals; — creating, in short, different organs, according to the state of organization in which they occur,

‘From these two considerations, I deemed it certain that the motion of fluids in the interior of animals, (a motion which is progressively accelerated with the increased composition of the organization,) and that the influence of new circumstances, in proportion as animals were exposed to them in the course of their diffusion over the habitable parts of the earth, were the two general causes which have placed the various animals in the respective states in which we find them.’

We have expressed these positions, as nearly as we could, in M. LAMARCK's own terms, because they form the basis of his theory, and because he repeatedly refers to them in the progress of his work. His inquiries, however, have led him a step farther, and induced him to assign, as the physical cause of the phenomena of feeling, a more compound state of the nervous system than that which takes place in animals of the lowest order,

order, and, as the cause of the phenomena of intellect, a still more compounded state of the same system. Feeling he conceives to be essentially distinct from irritability, and derived from a separate source; the former resulting from a faculty peculiar to restrain animals, and requiring a specific apparatus of organs for its exercise, and the latter being an inherent property of all animal organization. To internal feeling, in the more perfect animals, he ascribes the producing power of their movements; which, again, in the more imperfect tribes, originate in external excitements. Having remarked that the motions of animals are never communicated, but always excited, he observed that nature borrowed from surrounding media the exciting power of the vital motions and actions of imperfect animals, and was enabled, by compounding their organization, first to convey that power into the animals themselves, and secondly to place it at the disposal of the individuals:

‘Thus,’ says he, ‘this *Zoological Philosophy* exhibits the results of my studies on animals, their general and particular characters, their organization, the causes of its developement and diversity, and the faculties which they derive from it. I have here brought together the principal materials which I had collected for a projected work on living bodies, under the title of *Biology*; a work which, on my part, will remain unexecuted.’

The learned Professor offers his speculations to the public merely as his opinions and reasonings; to which, he admits, the opinions and reasonings of others may be opposed. In meditating on the ideas which he now submits to the judgment of the world, he acknowledges the pleasure which he received from their likeness to truth, and the compensation which they afforded him for a life of protracted and fatiguing study.

‘I shall attain,’ he adds, ‘the end which I proposed, if lovers of the natural sciences shall find in this work some views and principles of which they can avail themselves; if the observations which I have advanced, and which are my own, are confirmed or approved by those who have had occasion to be occupied with the same pursuits; and if the ideas which they are calculated to suggest can in any degree forward our knowledge, or put us in the way of arriving at unknown truths.’

This is the becoming language of modesty: but, like other theorists, the author, in the course of his argumentation, seems to regard his favourite notions as so many propositions established by fact, and susceptible of complete demonstration.

Our attention is next called to the *Preliminary Discourse*, which is very unnecessarily separated from the *Advertisement*, the materials of both being obviously reducible to the form of a single preface or introduction. Following, however, the
author's

author's train of thinking, in the order in which he has assigned it to writing, we cordially assent to the truth of the observation, that the most important phenomena of animal life have chiefly attracted the attention of physiologists, from the period in which the more limited degrees of organization were assumed as fixed and referable points, in the course of their investigations. In our attempts to explain the origin and nature of the vital principle, and of the physical constitution of the various races of animals, we shall most probably be baffled on the very threshold of our inquiries, if we commence with man, the system of whose organization is by far the most refined and complicated with which we are acquainted: but the most simple forms, in which animal motion has been perceived, may be contemplated with better hopes of success; and, from a review of the first ascertained rudiments of life, we might gradually proceed to that of its more complex and intricate modifications. That this is the most eligible and philosophical mode of conducting our inquiries into the origin and operations of the laws of organic life will scarcely admit of dispute: but that the results of inquiries, so conducted, and prosecuted with ability and discernment, would entirely coincide with the author's deductions, is far less apparent.

The presence or the absence of a vertebral column in animals gives occasion to an obvious and important distinction in the multiplied diversities of their structure. The *invertebral* tribes, either from their minuteness or their fancied insignificance, were long overlooked, or very superficially examined. Yet the study of them ought particularly to excite the attention and interest of the naturalist, both because they are more numerous and varied than the other classes of animals, and because the differences of their structure are more singular and more distinctly defined.

Fully aware of these truths, and of the importance of investigating the productions of nature first in general masses or groupes, and afterward in their most minute details,—while the rapid progress of comparative anatomy, the recent discoveries of zoologists, and his own additional observations, loudly called for a new edition of his system of invertebral animals,—M. LAMARCK was induced to concentrate, in a separate work, those general principles which have a reference to the study of the animal kingdom, the essential facts which demand our attention in the prosecution of that study, the grounds of their natural distribution, and the most important consequences which flow from the facts and observations thus collected, so as to exhibit the foundation of the true philosophy of zoological science. The present publication, he informs us, is only a remoulded

moulded edition corrected, and greatly enlarged, of his *Researches into the nature of Living Bodies*, divided into three principal parts, each of which is subdivided into chapters :

‘ Thus, in the first part, of which the object is to exhibit the essential facts that have been observed, and the general principles of the natural sciences, I shall first consider what I term the *artificial parts* of the sciences in question, the importance of attending to the doctrine of *relations*, and the idea which we should form of what is denominated *species* among living bodies. Then, after having unfolded the general principles relative to animals, I shall state, on the one hand, the proofs of that series of organization which extends from one extremity of the animal scale to the other, the most perfect animals being placed at the anterior extremity of this scale; and I shall shew, on the other hand, the influence of *circumstances and habits* on the organs of animals, as producing those causes which advance or arrest their developement. I shall close this part with a view of the *natural order* of animals, and an exposition of the most eligible mode of *distributing and classifying* them.

‘ In the second part, I shall offer my ideas on the order and state of things which constitute the essence of animal life, and shall indicate the conditions essential to the existence of that admirable phenomenon of nature. I shall next endeavour to determine the exciting cause of organic motions, that of tension and irritability, the properties of the cellular texture, the only circumstance in which *spontaneous generations* can take place, the evident consequences of the acts of life, &c.

‘ Lastly, the third part will present my opinion on the physical causes of feeling, the power of action, and the acts of intellect performed by certain animals.

‘ Under this division of the subject, I shall treat, 1. Of the origin and formation of the nervous system : 2. Of the nervous fluid, which can be known only indirectly, but of which the existence is attested by the phenomena which it alone can produce : 3. Of the physical sensibility and mechanism of sensations : 4. Of the producing force of the motions and actions of animals : 5. Of the source of volition, or of the faculty of the will : 6. Of ideas, and of their different orders : 7. Finally, Of certain particular acts of the understanding, as attention, reflection, imagination, memory, &c.

‘ The views unfolded in the second and third parts, doubtless, involve subjects of very difficult examination, and even questions apparently incapable of solution : but they present, at the same time, so much interest, that our attempts may prove of advantage, either by bringing to light truths which had escaped observation, or by preparing the way which may conduct us to the attainment of them.’

In pursuance of this plan, the author commences with the consideration of what he awkwardly terms the *parts of art* in natural science ; by which we are to understand the artificial steps to which men have had recourse, in their attempts to arrange the multiplied productions of nature. Under these he includes *Systematic Distributions, Classes, Orders, Families, Genera,*

zera, and *Nomenclature*; none of which, he maintains, are founded in nature, though he admits their practical utility and expediency. The productions of nature, he assures us, are merely individuals, which appear after one another in continued succession, which resemble those that have produced them, and which belong to races infinitely diversified; shading into all forms and degrees of organization, and each remaining unchanged as long as no cause of change happens to act on it: The order of nature, which, in proportion as it is studied and known, ought to supersede all conventional and arbitrary arrangements, is, in her organic domain, that of organization; proceeding from the most simple to the most complex structures; and presenting, at its two extreme points, living bodies, which are the most remote from one another, in respect of relations, and offer in their constitution and form the greatest possible differences. In the animal kingdom, the outlines of the grand departments are already sketched agreeably to this principle: but the limits of their subordinate classes, orders, families, and genera, are still exposed to the unsteadiness of arbitrary regulations. That some of the classes of animal productions have their boundaries visibly defined by nature herself is a mere illusion, the offspring of our circumscribed knowledge of the animal forms which exist, and which have existed; and the farther our observation extends, the more we may be convinced that distinctions, apparently the most marked and insulated, are effaced by new discoveries. Thus, in Australia, we find a class of animals intermediate between the Mammalia and birds. The idea of particular and subordinate *classes*, within those of more general import, is justly condemned as unphilosophical. The multitude and diversity of objects included under one general class may, it is true, completely justify the institution of inferior sections and *groupes*: but these latter ought not to be denominated by the more general title. The interests of science require that the artificial disposition of its materials should be regulated by the utmost possible simplicity, which is not incompatible with all the divisions and subdivisions which may be found necessary, provided that each has a special denomination; otherwise, nomenclature itself, by the licence of growing abuse, may become a subject of more difficult comprehension than the objects which it is destined to denote.

It would be needless to shew that the secondary divisions of our artificial systems are, according to M. LAMARCK's principles, still more liable to exception than the primary divisions of classes; and that the frequent alterations, which take place in the institution of orders and genera, are attended with

very

very serious trouble and inconvenience. Yet, until we arrive at the knowledge of all living beings, similar changes, we apprehend, must be occasionally introduced in the progress of natural science, whatever be the basis of our distributions. If that basis, however, be assumed from the relations which animals really bear to one another, and if such relations can be easily and accurately defined, a very important step will, no doubt, be gained in the construction of a natural method. From the aid of comparative anatomy, therefore, the author would derive the sources of his arrangement; selecting three special organs in the order of their importance, as the fittest from which to deduce the requisite relations. These are, 1. the organ of feeling; 2. the organ of respiration; and, 3. the organ of circulation. The first two are the most generally employed by nature, and, consequently, more important than the third, which disappears after the crustaceous animals; whereas the first two extend to the animals of two classes subordinate to the crustaceous. Again, of the first two, the organ of feeling is the most important with respect to relations, because it gives birth to the most eminent of the animal faculties, and because, without this organ, muscular action could not exist. Such ideas are strictly philosophical: yet it will, at the same time, be obvious, that every student of nature cannot conveniently avail himself of nice anatomical operations, when roaming on land or water in quest of prey.

M. LAMARCK next labours, and, we are inclined to think, not without success, to prove that the commonly received notion of the permanency of specific characters is erroneous:

‘I repeat it,’ he says, ‘the more our collections are enriched, the more are we convinced that every thing is more or less shaded; that the remarkable differences vanish; and that, for the most part, nature leaves at our disposal, for the establishment of distinctions, only minute and, if we may say so, childish particularities.’

‘How many genera, among animals and vegetables, have acquired such an extent by the multitude of species referred to them, that the study and determination of these species have become almost impracticable! The *species* of these genera, ranged in regular succession, and brought together according to their natural relations, present such slight differences from those which are conterminous, that they graduate into one another, and are mutually blended, so as scarcely to permit us to express in language any trifling points of distinction.’

‘They only who have long and assiduously applied to the determination of *species*, and who have consulted such collections, know how much the kinds of living bodies run into one another, and are convinced that, when we see insulated species, we consider them as such merely because we are unacquainted with others more nearly related to them, and which are wanting to complete our assortment.’

‘I would

‘ I would not, however, be understood to say that the animals which exist do not form a very simple series, and equally shaded throughout, but that *that* series is ramified, and graduated in various directions; and that it has not, or at least that it has not always had, any discontinuity of parts, if it be true that, in consequence of the loss of some species, a few breaks are now perceptible. It follows that the *species*, which terminate each branch of the general series, are connected, at least on one side, with other adjoining species which harmonize with them. This much the well known state of things now enables me to demonstrate.

‘ To accomplish my purpose, I need not have recourse to any hypothesis or supposition, but merely appeal to all naturalists who are accustomed to observe.

‘ Not only many genera, but whole orders, and sometimes even classes, already present us with portions almost complete, of the state of things which I have just indicated.

‘ Now, in such cases, when the *species* are arranged in a series, and all stationed according to their natural relations, if we select any one of them, and, passing over several others, fix on a second, somewhat removed from the first, these two *species*, when compared, will present us with striking dissimilarities. It is thus that we began to view the productions of nature which were most within our reach, and whose generic and specific distinctions were easily settled: but, now that our collections are so richly stored, were we to follow the series to which I have just alluded, from the *species* selected in the first instance to that which is singled out in the second, and which is so different from the first, we should reach it by gradual shadings, without remarking any distinctions worthy of being noted.

‘ I ask, where is the zoologist or botanist, who is not perfectly convinced of the justness of this view of the subject?

‘ How can we now study or determine the *species*, in a satisfactory manner, amid that multitude of polypes, of all orders, of radiarii, vermes, and especially of insects, among which the genera of *papilio*, *phalæna*, *noctuella*, *tinia*, *musca*, *ichneumon*, *vespæ*, *capricorn*, *scarabæus*, *cetonia*, &c. &c. already, of themselves, furnish so many species which closely approximate, graduate into one another, and are almost confounded together?

‘ What a crowd of shells do not the molluscous tribes offer to our contemplation, from all countries and seas, which elude our means of distinction, and exhaust our discriminative resources?

‘ If we ascend to the fishes, the reptiles, birds, and even the mammalia, we shall see, with the exception of the vacancies which still remain to be filled up, connecting links every where uniting the neighbouring species,—nay, even the genera,—and leaving to our industry scarcely any ground of good distinctions.

‘ Does not botany, which considers the other series which the vegetable tribes compose, exhibit, in its different parts, a state of things perfectly similar?

‘ In fact, what difficulties do we not now experience in the study and determination of species in the genera, *lichen*, *fusus*, *carex*, *pod*, *piper*, *euphorbia*, *erica*, *hieracium*, *solanum*, *geranium*, *mimosa*? &c. &c.

‘ When

'When these genera were first instituted, a few species only were known; and it was then an easy matter to distinguish them: but now, when nearly all the intervals between them are closed, our specific differences are necessarily minute, and generally insufficient.'

That facts correspond with these representations will not be readily disputed, and we have more than once hinted our suspicion that the system of nature is a system of insensible gradations, that even the boundaries of animal and vegetable life are obscurely defined, and that the two extremes of organic and inorganic matter may meet at a common point. To the will of the sovereign Creator we must ultimately ascribe this astonishing yet graduating variety in the productions of nature, which the philosopher contemplates with admiration and complacency, and which involves the mere framers of modern nomenclature in a labyrinth of perplexity. We are permitted, however, to trace some of the secondary agency which is employed for the production of the effect in question. A change of climate, for example, or domestication, or intercourse between animals nearly allied in physical constitution, are observed to alter the forms and habits of the progeny; and to induce and multiply such changes on the original diversities, that we feel ourselves lost among breeds, species, and varieties. M. LAMARCK does not stop here, but, assuming that the most simple forms of animation were first produced, and are still directly generated by nature, he contends that, from these rudiments, or germs of organization, the finer and more complex forms have been slowly evolved, in the lapse of ages. This doctrine he deliberately expounds in the following canons, or maxims; and with the same degree of confidence, as if he had watched the progress of nature in different ages of the world:

'1. All the organized bodies of our globe are genuine productions of nature, which she has successively formed, during long periods of time.

'2. In her mode of procedure, nature commenced, and still every day recommences, by forming the most simple organized bodies, and directly forms them only, namely, the first rudiments of organization, or, as they have been termed, *spontaneous generations*.

'3. When the first outlines of the animal and vegetable were formed in suitable places and circumstances, the faculties of incipient life and of organic motion being established, have necessarily, and by slow degrees, unfolded the organs, and, in progress of time, diversified them, as well as their parts.

'4. The faculty of increment in each portion of the organized body, being inherent in the first effects of life, has given rise to different modes of the multiplication and regeneration of individuals, and thus the progress acquired in the composition of organization, and in the form and diversity of the parts, has been preserved.

' 5. By the aid of an adequate length of time, of circumstances necessarily favourable, of changes which all the points of the globe's surface have successively undergone in their condition, — in short, from the powerful influence which new situations and new habits exercise in modifying the organs of bodies indued with life, — all those which now exist have been insensibly formed such as we see them.

' 6. Lastly, according to a similar order of things, all living bodies having experienced more or less important changes in the state of their organization and parts, what is termed *species* among them has been thus insensibly and successively formed, has but a relative permanence in its condition, and cannot be so antient as nature.'

Here the author pauses, to meet two objections which may be urged against this theory of gradual evolution and change.

1. Shall we ascribe to nature, it may be said, and not to the sovereign author of all things, the wonderful instincts and various modes of industry that are exercised by animals? — The answer is obvious, that the supreme Creator may educe his works in the way and manner which he deems most fit; that he may bid all tribes of beings spring into existence at once; or may so constitute and indue the more rude and simple forms, that they shall prove the proximate sources of gradually unfolding varieties: — but M. LAMARCK seems to talk of nature as if it were really a *being* or *agent* subordinate to the Almighty power, instead of the mere expression of an abstract idea; which indeed we often personify, but which, when strictly analyzed, can only denote that order and constitution of things which the great first cause has established and maintains. —

2. It has been long received as an admitted truth, that the constancy of species is inalterable; and the fact seems to have been decided by the precise conformity of individuals of living species in Egypt with such of the same species as were embalmed two or three thousand years ago. In vain, therefore, is it alleged that the same species of animals undergoes any material alteration in the progress of ages. — This celebrated zoologist pretends not to dispute the accuracy of *Geoffroi*, and others of his countrymen, who have ascertained the striking identity between preserved and recent specimens: but he attempts to destroy the force of the argument grounded on this identity, by maintaining that the climate and physical constitution of Egypt have undergone no material change since the date of our most antient records; and that, in course, none could take place on its native animals. This opinion, however, is more easily asserted than proved. Will M. LAMARCK convince his readers that the soil, climate, and produce of Egypt are at this day precisely what they were in the reign of Sesostris? or that animals deemed *sacred* do not, from that

very

very circumstance, receive a certain degree of indulgent and domestic treatment, which, according to his own reasoning, ought to influence not only their habits but their organization?

We cannot, in short, subscribe to the full extent of this author's doctrine; because the facts and analogies, with which we are acquainted, would not bear us out in the support of it. That a few thousand years seem to be a period of long duration to man, while, in regard to the system of the universe, they may be estimated as an instant, we will not dispute: but, beyond the verge of these few thousand years, the data of human reasoning disappear; and though we may roam with more or less felicity in the regions of fancy and conjecture, in these dark regions we must be contented to abide: for where is the *proof* that nature has *successively formed all her productions after long periods of time*? If we are to have recourse to the once exploded doctrine of *spontaneous generation* in some instances, why not in others? Are we certain that the *monas*, for example, is of a less complex structure than the *hydatid*? or that the latter, the *fasciola*, and the solitary *tenia*, are produced by creatures like themselves? If so, where are the parent animals to be found? or how do they penetrate into the inmost substance of the human viscera? Again, why should it follow, as a *necessary consequence*, that the establishment of the first germs of vegetable and animal life should imply the gradual evolution of organs, and the diversities of their forms and parts? or, if this must *necessarily* be, is there any point at which the unfolding of the scene is destined to stop? or are new organs, and new diversities of parts, to be formed and acquired to all eternity?—Lastly, we are at a loss to conceive how the faculty of *growth*, inherent in organized bodies, should give rise to the various modes of *multiplication* and *regeneration*.

When obvious illogical deductions pervade the leading principles of any system, it is surely unnecessary to pursue its examination in detail. In the present instance, particularly, we beg leave to waive the consideration of the author's *generalities on animals*, and his *scale of gradation*: not only because the chapters so intitled frequently recall us to the ideas which have been already stated, but because they are principally occupied with his classification of animals; a subject with which our zoological readers (it is to be presumed) are sufficiently familiar.

We are unwilling, however, to close our report of the first part of this work, without adverting to an improper mode of expression to which the writer has more than once had recourse, and which implies the idea that nature, as if circum-

scribed in her means, had been *obliged* or *constrained* to act as she has done. Now, on the strange supposition that Nature is a *real personage*, inferior to the Deity, and operating merely in virtue of a limited and delegated power, such language might be tolerated: but if by Nature we understand that order of things in the physical world which has been ordained by the Supreme Being, (and we can attach no other idea to the term,) the slightest insinuation of compulsion or incompetency must be regarded as highly irreverent. In justice, however, to M. LAMARCK, it behoves us to observe that in one passage he interprets the *power of nature* by the *order of existing things*; that in another he strongly reprobates the idea of assigning limits to the Supreme power; and that, in a third, he emphatically asks whether that power be less an object of admiration, because it has willed that things should be as they are.

In a subsequent article, we purpose to notice the two remaining parts of this ingenious but excentric publication.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. V. *Paris dans le dix-neuvième Siècle*; &c.; i. e. *Paris in the Nineteenth Century*; or the Remarks of an Observer on its new Institutions, Embellishments, Public Spirit, Society, &c. &c. By PETER JOUHAUD, Advocate. 8vo. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

MERCIER published his voluminous but entertaining *Tableau de Paris* in 1782, which painted with appropriate colours the sunset of a declining sovereignty. With brilliant but laboured, with polished but affected eloquence, the physical and moral features of the French metropolis were described in detail. Panegyric observations were made on its beautiful and stately palaces, on its ornamented walks and fountains, on its many bridges, attractive theatres, and forsaken temples. A more critical notice was taken of the comprehensive libraries, of the far-fetched collections for natural history, and of the then insignificant specimens of fine art. With cynical mordacity, the Parisian was also pursued to the eating-room, the brothel, and the gambling-house, and was reviled for the variety and refinement of his incessant luxurious gratifications. All were sunken in sensuality and selfishness; and if the praise of generosity was occasionally heard, it was but the rapacity of vice, which finds its account in flattering profusion. Licentious speculations, and practical depravities of indulgence, were welcome in society, because every one tried to require the toleration which he bestowed.

The

The agitative character of all unoccupied talent sought in revolution a remedy for this excess of egotism;—and Paris is now metamorphosed. So, at least, the present author tells us, in his first chapter; and he proceeds to sketch its present state with a more rapid glance than *Mercier*, but with a not less pervasive insight. He does not, however, possess all the eloquence, nor all the love of liberty, which characterized his prototype; he is a more courtly writer; and in loyalty to the reigning house, in the love of public order, and in ministerial adulation, he might be compared with a British anti-jacobin.

We shall transcribe the titles of the several chapters, and dilate on those which contain any novelty of information, or call for remark.

I. *Paris metamorphosed.* A certain gravity has overspread the countenance and manner of the modern Parisian: whether, because a serious impression has really been made by the great catastrophes of the Revolution; or because the demands of war have diminished the proportion of *young* men in society, and have thus given to maturity an obvious and exemplary ascendancy.

The attempts of the police to effect embellishment are incessant; and ‘the monuments which are erecting,’ says the author (p.7.) ‘not only serve to adorn the metropolis, but their object is also to withdraw from indigence a croud of labourers, and thus to preserve public tranquility, by providing for the wants of the industrious class.’

II. *The Parisian in the world.* The insulated character of the Parisian, arising from the large proportion of male celibacy, is well indicated. It differs widely from our independency. Talents are prized higher than the virtues of the heart; as if to be good were less meritorious than to be great.

III. *The Provincial at Paris.* The suspicious character of the provincial, who enters a large town for the first time, and takes premature precautions against thieves and pickpockets, only to fall a prey to swindlers more refined, is a delineation in general nature, and not peculiar to Paris. So is the remark that the distinction of ranks is less sensible in large than in small towns, and is always least perceived among the accomplished and intelligent.

IV. *Different classes of quacks.* In a French work, it is curious to find the commercial quack put at the head of the list, and to read warnings by which London might profit. At Paris, it seems, many mercantile men are continually occupied in devising magnificent speculations. They propose to one house to advance or invest capital in the form of shipping; to another, in the form of good; to a third, in the form of ready-money. The agency, with a regular per-centage, is to devolve

on the projector. Idle capitalists are included in the scheme for a specific amount, and are invited to exchange their bonds for book-debts yielding triple interest. Letters pass, and the sunshine of hope continually brightens, until the patience of the various creditors is exhausted; and then some miserable dividends among the concerned ascertain their disappointment and distribute bankruptcy.

Literary quacks succeed. *Mesmer* and his animal magnetism are recalled to recollection;—*Gall*, and his cranioscopy;—*Feinagel*, and his technical memory.—The starers (*les badauds*) or harkeners are satirized: but in fact curiosity amuses many, and dupes fewer than it instructs. No great city can or ought to be without objects of intellectual speculation. The success of a quack is a convenient and useful gage of the state of public instruction: for the philosopher promulgates in consequence the defective quantity of sound science.

Of religious and political quacks, Paris is seldom the theatre, because the country has not as yet toleration enough, either in the church or in the state, for these enthusiasms freely to expand; and an evangelical preacher, or a parliamentary reformer, would not be allowed to collect an audience at the conventicle or the tavern. The strongest civic passions of the human soul, the pursuit of salvation and of liberty, have not in France the play-room which nature requires, and which the institutions of society should be constructed to afford. *Bonaparte* has still to learn the safety of unlimited tolerance. All heresy contains an inherent principle of subdivision, which prevents the excessive strength of successful sects. Give the opportunity of splitting, and a division ensues which palsies danger, and facilitates conquest.

V. *Carriages*. These are chiefly contemplated in the point of view in which they affect the rank of the female owner. It appears from this chapter that the worship of wealth, or the excessive deference for the rich, has increased at Paris, since the overthrow of that artificial rank which birth and title formerly bestowed.

VI. *Cabriolets*. “*Si j’étais lieutenant de police, je defendrais les cabriolets*,” said Louis XV., on witnessing some untoward accident. These cabriolets, however, are well-imagined carriages; which, on two wheels, and by means of one horse, support a body that holds two persons, and is inclosed like a post-chaise, with glass windows. Our English one-horse chaises are less warm, weather-tight, and comfortable. The French vehicles are guided at pleasure from within or from without.

VII. *Hacks*.

VII. *Hacks*. It is observed that hackney-coaches are in a great degree superseded by one-horse cabriolets; and that a gentleman alone, or two companions, now employ these two-wheeled hacks; those with four wheels being called only by those who have luggage to transport. This is accompanied with an economy of fare, and may deserve imitation in London.

VIII. *Insulation of the Parisians*. The late marriages, the usual celibacy, the imported population, and that impatience of observation which parsimony and profligacy agree to avow, all conspire to render family-intimacy very scarce. The domestic virtues abound less, and are valued less, than in provincial towns; and a man's character depends more on what he is as a *diner-out*, than on what he is as a *dweller at home*.

IX. *The Chaussée d'Antin*. This is now become the genteel quarter of Paris, though it is inhabited by the monied interest. Carriages no longer rattle in those streets in which the nobility had their hotels: but the bankers have survived the shock of the Revolution, and many of them have profited by it. The consequence of this change will be advantageous to public morality. In the commercial world, marriages take place at an earlier age than among the landed interest. They are consequently purer. Adultery, which was fashionable among the nobility, is frowned down among the merchants, who do not select cicisbeos for their guests.

X. *The Grove of Boulogne* is the Hyde-Park of Paris, where the owners of fine horses display their riding. English paces are in vogue.

XI. *Palais-royal*. XII. *Bouillotte*. A game at cards, which is become fashionable at Paris, and which is here described.

XIII. *Fripperers*, or *Old Clothes-men*. XIV. *Caricature-shops*.

XV. *Lifeguards*. XVI. *Ton Militaire*. It is admitted that the practice of raising merit from the ranks has rendered the army more formidable, but less agreeable; and that the modern French officer is no longer the polished gentleman of the old monarchy.

XVII. *Bankers*. The French banker is thus described by a satirical poet, or rather by a painter of modern manners:

‘ Quand l’astre bien faisant qui verse la lumière
Sur un lit de duvet ouvre votre paupière,
Des glaces, des tableaux captivent vos regards;
Votre bouche sourit aux chefs-d’œuvre des arts.
Bientôt l’espoir du gain éconduit la paresse;
Vous quittez sans effort l’alcove enchanteresse.
Du temple de Plutus vous frayant le chemin,
Dix commis devant vous s’offrent la plume en main.
Ces commis, ces cartons, ces énormes liasses
Qui de vos quatre murs tapissent les surfaces,
L’aspect de ce caissier impassible gardien,
Qui reçoit, compte tout, ne dispose de rien,

Indigent

*Indigent spectateur des trésors qu'il étale,
 V véritable héritier des destins de Tantale.
 Cependant l'heure fuit. Un somptueux festin
 Vient couronner le soir les plaisirs du matin.
 Son luxe offre à vos sens des voluptés plus vives ;
 Un seul de vos regards charme trente convives ;
 Ces convives pour-vous prodiguent l'enjouement ;
 Chaque service ajoute à leur ravissement ;
 Les grâces, la beauté, le pouvoir, l'opulence
 De vos goûts à l'envi proclament l'excellence.
 Plus obligeant encor un auteur peu connu,
 Mais qui convoite aussi le nom de parvenu,
 Entonne quelques vers mal tournés.—C'est dommage !
 Un autre, avec dédain recevant son hommage,
 D'un semblable tribut serait presque offensé.
 L'ingrat !—Votre rimeur est mieux récompensé ;
 Vous lui trouvez du tact, du sel, de l'harmonie,
 Et vous croyez chez vous posséder un génie.
 Le salon s'ouvre alors. On change d'entretien ;
 Les nombreux discoureurs composent leur maintien ;
 Votre docte ignorance,
 Changeant en quatre mots la face de la France,
 N'y laisse que les lois, que les vertus debout.
 Le bon sens vous seconde ; il vous tient lieu de tout ;
 Selon vous nul obstacle au bon sens ne résiste ;
 Quiconque a du bon sens est un vrai publiciste.—*

XVIII. Mont de Piété. The old pawnbrokers have been superseded by an association chartered under the government ; and a joint-stock-company has been formed, who hold shares in this vast public pawn-warehouse, and who receive a dividend of about ten per cent. on their advances. Four distant doors admit the distressed visitors into the vast enclosure ; at each of which are a porter and an appraiser, who for a small fee give a written valuation of any article that is offered to their inspection. The bringer can obtain at each door a distinct valuation ; and the clerks in the centre of the building are obliged to advance on the article so brought a sum equal to the first or to the average appraisement. Regular receipts and tickets are issued, and the things pledged are carefully laid up. On small amounts, an interest of twenty per cent., and on large amounts twelve per cent., is levied, if pledged by the month, of more if by the week. The expences of the establishment being discharged, a handsome profit is left to the subscribers. Forfeited pledges are annually sold by auction. Two thousand shawls are stated to be in general deposited in this establishment.

XIX. Public Economy. XX. Mendicity. XXI. Fortune. The importance of a fortune to comfortable residence in Paris

is here maintained, in a manner which shews that the ancient sources of distinction have sunken in value, and that rank and talent are too much appreciated by sordid calculations, as if

“ The only value of a thing
Were so much money as ’twill bring.”

XXII. Bank of France. The French have at present a chartered bank, of which the notes were, in 1805, at a discount of twelve per cent., but which at present pays in specie, and is rapidly acquiring the public confidence. It is modelled after the Bank of England. The original capital was advanced by proprietors whose shares are transferable; and the direction is intrusted to a committee elected by the proprietors.

XXIII. Finances and Commerce. **XXIV. Parisian Ingenuity.** A curious anecdote occurs in this chapter relative to M. Fortin, who is said to have opened in the Palais-royal a number of public necessities, where, for three halfpence, the passengers are neatly accommodated: by which he has acquired enough to bestow on one of his daughters a marriage-portion of sixty-thousand livres. In Edinburgh, no doubt, a similar establishment would experience similar success. In the Palais-royal is also a blacking shop, rented at three thousand livres; where, while the young *artist*, “ whose sombre pencil paints your boots,” is at work, newspapers are provided to read. It is calculated that sixty thousand pairs of shoes must be cleaned in this shop, in order to pay the mere rental, which forms but a small part of the expence of the establishment.

XXV. Religion. Of the state of religion in France, which is a curious topic, we translate the author’s account:

“ Every day I hear censors expressing their chagrin that the living generation is lost to Christianity, and that the Revolution has given a mortal blow to religion. For my own part, I know that every Sunday, when I go at noon to my parish-church of Saint Roch, I always find it filled. A number of young and pleasing well-drest women are collected there; and young men, not less fervent, come and mingle among them, and unite their homage with that which beauty addresses to the Eternal. A *rigorist* might censure little whisperings and salutations, which are going on; but a Christian will abstain from uncandid suspicions; and if he sees the church quitted during the elevation of the host, he will presume that it is to converse about the holiest of our mysteries that the auditors depart.

“ Since the world has been a world, every age has complained of the increasing perverseness of manners, and every country has been deploring the decay of piety and the neglect of religion. I suspect that we are nearly as good as our forefathers; and that, if we reason less about religion, we are not the less attentive to our duties, “ Christians! reason not;” this is the first principle of the gospel; faith,

faith, nothing but faith, and always faith, this is the only shield with which objections are to be repelled, and ratiocinations destroyed. There are things which ought ever to remain covered with a respectful veil; and of this class are the fundamental doctrines of our holy religion.'

That the Catholics of Paris should now be in the habit of quitting the church during the elevation of the host is a striking, formal, and public protest against the doctrine of transubstantiation; and it shews that, if the catholic priests desire to retain the confidence (or even the countenance) of their votaries, they must take some of those steps towards reformation, which the Protestant communities successfully hazarded in the fifteenth century.

XXVI. *Fashion.* XXVII. *Restaurateurs.* XXVIII. *Bachelors.* XXIX. *Women.* A corrupt tone runs through this chapter: the wives of the French should be exhorted to set a purer example than their mothers: the permanent happiness of the wife, the good education of the children, and the disposition of the husband to industry and economy, without which no regular advancement in life can be made, all depend chiefly on the correct conduct of the married women. The author designates by the term *honest women* (*femmes honnêtes*) a class of licentious but decorous matrons, who would not be visited in London by ladies of character: but who, it appears, are received every where in Paris. The bankers' wives should begin the reformation, and exclude from their society the married mistresses even of ministers of finance.

XXX. *Kept Women.* XXXI. *Public Women.* XXXII. *Men of Intrigue.* XXXIII. *Protectors.* XXXIV. *School of Law.* The eloquence of the lecturer *Pastoret*, is praised at the expence of his professional knowledge. XXXV. *The Bar.* XXXVI. *The Place of Execution.* XXXVII. *Physicians and Surgeons.* This class of men is rising in France to higher respect; and higher fees will follow. The English are more just to the merits and accomplishments of medical men. XXXVIII. *Institute.* It is admitted that the literary class of the Institute falls short of the antient French Academy. If science has extended, taste has narrowed, her empire. XXXIX. *Authors.* The care of the state to recompense authors by places under government is characteristic of the present sovereign: a system which may foster loyalty, but silences the effusions of fancy and speculation. XL. *Gall, Feinagle, and Azais.* The latter, as our readers know, has written a book intitled, *Compensations des Destinées humaines**, which is here said to be in high vogue.

* See the Appendix to our list Vol. N. S.

It teaches the philosophy of indifference, and endeavours to prove that one situation is as productive of happiness as another, nature having provided compensations for every disadvantage : that pain is no evil, because it increases our capacity for future enjoyment ; and that opulence is no good, because, by habituating us to a complex multitude of gratifications, it renders amusement impracticable, and the slightest privation a misery. M. AZAIS has since written on the origin of the universe, of which work also we have made our report. (See Appendix to Vol. lxiv.)

XLi. *Legion of Honor.* A curious anecdote here occurs respecting a late celebrated botanist; who, not being comprehended in the first promotion of *savans* into the legion of honor, observed that he felt flattered by his station in the Institute, but should never seek his recompence in frivolous distinctions and external ornaments, which were formed to be the toys of vanity. In the second batch of literary knights, however, he was included ; and he then declared that the institution of the legion of honor would, in the eyes of posterity, be one of the greatest glories of the present reign.

XLII. *Public Instruction.* This chapter advises parents to prefer school education to domestic tuition ; and it throws indirectly much light on the sort of education that is usual in France. Greek, and even Latin, are almost neglected ; and in the gratuitous public lectures, a succedaneum is found for the want of early application. XLIII. *Female Education.* This is censured as tending more to the brilliant than the useful accomplishments ; and music and dancing are said to usurp the place of domestic knowledge and practical economy.

XLIV *Athenaeum of the Ladies.* Such was the title of a Lady's Magazine, written by ladies only, and published by Buisson. It was not lastingly successful : but it brought into celebrity much forgotten feminine merit, and drew attention to topics which may form the occupation of future excellence. Young women, perhaps, should not make a parade of their reading : but a time of life awaits the unmarried and the widowed, at which literature is a nobler and more efficacious defence against neglect and *ennui* than superstition ; and if the pleasures of hope decay, those of knowledge increase with old age.

' *Songe-t-on aux moyens d'occuper la mémoire,
Quand on peut d'un regard captiver tous les cœurs ?
A de si doux succès quand l'âge enfin s'oppose,
Quand la gloire à nos yeux offre d'autres attraits,
Chaque femme en soupire, et place avec regrets
Le laurier sur un front où se fane la rose.*

XLV. *The French Epicurean.* The literature of good eating is much cultivated at Paris, because it supplies appropriate table-talk. The *almanac des Gourmands* is praised, and the goddess *Adéphagie* is announced as the allegorical or mythologic personification of the pleasure of the palate. XLVI. *Musée Napoléon.* This unequalled collection of fine art, in which all the master-pieces of sculpture are assembled that have survived the wreck of antiquity, is considered as the noblest trophy of Bonaparte. XLVII. *Conservatory of Music.* XLVIII. *Book-sellers.* The book-trade at Paris is conducted as in London, and the effects which result are analogous. Authors are underpaid, because the loss by unsuccessful writers must be assessed on the popular writers. In Germany, the book-trade has attained a state more favourable to production, to excellence, and to the convenient maintenance of writers, than in either France or England.

XLIX. *Dinners.* L. *Servants.* LI. *Prejudices about the Provinces.* LII. *Theatric Spectacles.* LIII. *Reviews.* Caustic criticism is becoming fashionable in France: but authors stood higher in public estimation, while they were in league to make the best of one another. No doubt, the public thinks with *Boileau*;

“ *Le mérite en repos s’endort dans la mollesse.*”

LIV. *Gaming-houses.* LV. *Exchange.* This institution resembles our stock-exchange; it is held in a vacant church; and is described as a form of commercial gambling, which government encourages in order to facilitate the distribution of its loans.

Such are the principal contents of a volume which will have more interest for those who know Paris already, than for those who merely wish to see it pictured. It is taken for granted that the leading objects of curiosity are familiar; and therefore comments are given, not descriptions. These remarks are rather obvious than curious, rather natural than recondite; and in course they have more frequently the merit of good sense than the demerit of affectation. The style has that plain propriety, on which critics are mostly agreed to place the mark of good writing: yet we perceive in it a want of spirit in the thought, and of brilliancy in the expression, a mawkish insipidity of meaning and of phrase, which we acknowledge to be blameless, but feel to be wearisome. More should have been said of the specific changes which Paris has undergone since *Mercier* wrote. To us foreigners, at least, it would have been welcome to learn particulars of the removal of the National Library to the Louvre, and of the new destination of the
ancient

antient site : to hear what quays have been cleared, what bridges built, what walks planted, what aqueducts begun. Now that a journey to Paris is to us impracticable, the local observer should use his eyes for our information. To eulogize the trophies of architectural magnificence is to recall nations to those competitions which employ industry, which maintain domesticated men, which accommodate and adorn society, which genius can with philanthropy direct, and which even in ruin illustrate their parental soil.

Art. VI. *Voyage dans les Départemens, &c. i. e.* Travels in the Southern Departments of France. By AUBIN LOUIS MILLIN, Member of the Institute, of the Legion of Honor, &c. &c. &c. 4 vols. 8vo. With a Quarto Atlas. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

WHENEVER the English tourist shall be permitted to traverse the departments of France, he will find this work an excellent *vade-mecum* in those districts to which it refers. With an enthusiastic attachment to his native country, M. MILLIN possesses much learning and science ; is honoured, as an antiquary, with the superintendence of the medals and antiquities in the Imperial Library * ; and when, for the recovery of his health, he commenced the tour of which these volumes give an account, he took with him letters of recommendation from M. Chaptal, Minister of the Interior, addressed to all the prefects and sub-prefects of the several departments which he purposed to explore. Hence it will appear that these travels were made under great advantages. The author's reception every where was gratifying, and every place became open to his inspection. His own qualifications, and those of his colleague †, were promising ; and they have taken pains not to disappoint the expectations which they must have raised. M. MILLIN has presented us, in the preface and introductory chapter, with so clear an account of the object of his travels, and has so minutely traced his route, that we shall

* M. MILLIN is not unknown, as an antiquary, even to the British public : at least to that part of it which does us the honor of consulting our pages : in which we formerly gave reports of his work on the *National Antiquities of France*. See M. R. Vol. viii. N. S. p. 556. — x. p. 545. — and xxxi. p. 505.

† M. Gosselin, Member of the National Institute, and of the Legion of Honor, celebrated for his works on Antient Geography.

have little more to do than to translate these passages for the instruction of our readers :

‘ It is my wish,’ says he, ‘ that my readers, by the sole aid of this work, should be made acquainted with all that is worthy of their curiosity in the beautiful districts through which I have passed. I have inserted all necessary hints for those who are desirous of making the same tour with ease and success, omitting no details. Successively I have described objects as they have presented themselves ; and the summary, at the head of each chapter, will indicate their number and variety. I have given only short notices of such as are well-known, referring to works in which they are described at large : but I have attended to various others which have never before been delineated and published. Monuments of the arts abound in my atlas ; because edifices, sculptures, and pictures, chiefly attract the notice of travellers : but it contains also views, costumes, ceremonies, utensils, machines ; in short, every thing which appeared to me worthy of being represented.’

The author apologizes for the number of antiquities which are introduced, but endeavours to console the general reader by giving translations of antient inscriptions ; and from the learned he hopes to receive compliments on his discovery of many which have been hitherto inedited.

By adverting to the extensive circuit which M. MILLIN'S travels include, it will be seen that this work will serve as an itinerary to those who, in future, may be disposed to make what in France is called the Grand Southern Tour.

‘ My narrative,’ he observes, ‘ commences with my departure from Paris, and finishes with my return to that city. I took the road to Lyons, by Fontainebleau, Sens, Auxerre, and Avalon. There I quitted it to traverse (*ci-devant*) Burgundy, passing through Semur, Montbard, and Dijon. Instead of taking the ordinary route by Beaune, I diverged to Cussy-la-Colonne and Autun. I examined the noble establishments of Creusot. I went down the Saone to Lyons. I followed the course of the Rhône, tarrying at every place that was interesting ; Vienne, Tain, Valence, Viviers, Bourg Saint-Andéol, le Pont-Saint-Esprit, Orange, and Avignon : whence I passed to Aix and Marseilles. I next visited all the coast, Toulon, Hyères, Saint-Tropez, Fréjus, Antibes, Nice, Cimiez, Monaco, and Menton. Returning to Marseilles by the towns in the mountains of the Upper Provence, Grasse, Vence, Draguignan, Aups, Riez, Digne, Sisteron, Forcalquier, Simiane, la Tour-d'Aigues, Saint Maximin and Tourves ; I visited the fair at Beaucaire, passing through Saint-Remi and Tarascon ; explored the (*ci-devant*) county of Arles, by the road of Arles, Bouc, Martigues, Saint-Chamas, Salon, and that of Venaissin, by the route of Vaison, Lille, la Fontaine de Vaucluse, and Carpentras, finishing the whole by an excursion to Gap by Mount Ventoux.

‘ After having quitted Provence, I visited Languedoc, Guienne, and Béarn, passing over the Pont du Gard, to Nîmes, Montpellier, Narbonne,

Narbonne, Carcassone, Castelnaudari, Toulouse, Auch, and Tarbes: I made an excursion also into the Pyrenées, returning to Bourdeaux by Pau, Roquefort, and Landes. From this last mentioned place, I proceeded towards Paris by Angoulême: but, instead of following the direct road, I diverged in order to visit Saintes, Saint-Jean-d'Angéli, Cognac, Rochefort, Rochelle, Niort, Poitiers, Montmorillon, and Richelieu. Lastly, arriving at Tours, I followed the banks of the Loire and the Cher to Amboise, Blois, Beaugency, Chambort, Chenonceaux, Cleri, and returned to Paris by Orleans and Etampes.*

What a noble bill of fare! What a wide and various field for the learned, the speculating, or the philosophic traveller! M. MILLIN has not only explored these numerous places with diligence and fidelity, but, for the purpose of making his work complete in point of information, he has availed himself of those authors who have before written on the objects which he notices, and has transcribed whatever he found worthy of being copied. Considering, therefore, the extensive track examined, the abilities of the traveller, the advantages which he enjoyed, and the labour and attention which he has employed to prepare his memoranda for the public eye, we may venture to speak of this production as distinguished of its kind, and to recommend it to those who travel in France either by actual peregrination, or without moving from their great chairs.

These remarks may suffice for a general report of M. MILLIN's performance: but now comes our difficulty; for to follow him step by step in his tour is impossible; and to select the most valuable extracts, out of 2600 pages of letter-press, is a task not very easy, since readers, according to different studies and tastes, will decide differently on this point. Antiquarian researches, we have said, occupy much of the traveller's attention; and altars and inscriptions frequently occur. The antient history of cities and of provinces is given, with the description of their former state; and by the aid of the Atlas, which contains a great number of plates, we are put in possession of as much information as can be expected from works of this kind. Libraries and museums, also, with their curious contents, obtain due notice. Among the numerous monuments of antiquity, the triumphal arch at Orange, in Dauphiny, so often visited by travellers, engages the particular attention of M. MILLIN: he exhibits a view of it in the plates, and subjoins a verbal description of its present state, bas-reliefs, trophies, and inscriptions; notices the different opinions which have been given respecting the cause of its erection; and then subjoins his own reflections, which terminate with a compliment (*lugged in by head and shoulders, as the common people say,*) to the present Emperor.

* When this pompous edifice was erected to eternize the glory of a great nation and its Generals, could it be conceived that a time would

would come when, though it existed almost entire, nothing should be positively known of its original destination ! This fact manifests the insufficiency of monuments to preserve the memory of the great actions of princes, and points out the superior utility of writing and printing. The temples at Vienne and at Nismes were built to the honour of princes of the Roman empire, who had in these places been revered as gods; yet, at the present day, we are reduced to discover their names by the traces of the nails which fixed the letters (which were of brass or copper) that composed them, on the friezes of the temples, though this research only assists conjecture, and leads to no certain result. The column of Cussy ought to have transmitted to posterity the name of a General who died in the act of obtaining some memorable victory : but we are ignorant whether the spot, on which this monument stands, has ever been a field of battle. The arch attributed (perhaps erroneously) to Marius is surcharged with attributes and ornaments, which afford scope for conjecture, without giving any clear direction to our ideas. One page of a celebrated historian, or a few verses of some great poet, would have more effectually served the purpose of those who were desirous of transmitting their fame to posterity. No fear exists at the present day that any tradition of this kind will be lost. The security of the state, the happiness of the people, the blessings which they pour forth on a prince while living, and the regrets which they express at his death, are the safest monuments of his glory, and the surest pledge of the love which they bore him. The people view with little interest the sumptuous monuments of St. Denis : but they repeat with rapture the name of St. Louis ; with tenderness those of Louis XII., and Henry IV. ; with enthusiasm that of Francis I. ; with admiration that of Louis XIV. ; and the name of Napoleon the First awakens all these sentiments.*

This enumeration of departed worth is evidently introduced for the sake of the compliment to Bonaparte ; and it merits notice, as shewing the kind of adulation which even philosophers and cold-blooded antiquaries are forced to present to the great idol. M. MILLIN, having paid his court to the Emperor, by uniting in his single person all the virtues of all former kings of France, returns to the triumphal arch at Orange, which many have vaguely supposed to have been erected in honour of Marius, because the word *Mario* appears on one of the shields in the bas-reliefs ; and he condescends to interest himself about its repair and preservation : but, if monuments of this kind are of so little use in transmitting to posterity the name and exploits of great men, his solicitude is ill placed, and badly accords with the preceding reflections. He knew, however, that the department of Vaucluse, in which this precious relict stands, was proud of it ; and perhaps his recommendation of expending a thousand crowns on its repair and protection will be grateful to the inhabitants. In England, such a hint would not be thrown away.—The feelings of the antiquary now give place to those of the man ; and we honour M. MILLIN for the indignation

Indignation with which he adverts to the horrible massacres of the French Revolution. It is necessary to hold up to everlasting execration the wretches of that day, in order that their example may be shunned in future by even the basest of mankind :

‘ While we are examining the triumphal arch at Orange, a painful sentiment arises from the bitterness which mixes itself with our pleasure ; because the place on which this monument is built has been the horrible theatre of murder, and the blood of Frenchmen has flowed under the axe of executioners, who called themselves their fellow-citizens and brothers. It was here that in 1793 many miserable creatures were conducted from the prisons of neighbouring towns to receive their death. Doubtless, the arch at Orange was erected to preserve the recollection of combats in which thousands fell : but they were *harvested* by war*, they died fighting for their country, and their memory excited sentiments which silenced regret ; on the other hand, the inhabitants of Avignon were dragged under the portals of the arch at Orange, and massacred without pity, and without the power of defending themselves against their assassins.’

Next to the triumphal arch, the object most deserving of attention from lovers of antiquity is that which is called, though improperly, the *Circus*. It is situated on the slope of a hill, where it would have been impossible to erect a building of that kind. The supposed circus is a theatre ; and this monument is the more precious, because it is the only one of this species now to be found in France, and the most entire of any yet existing. The circular part, where the spectators sat, is hollowed out of the mountain ; and the two extremities of the semi-circle were united by the construction of the stage. A plate illustrates the description ; and it is added that Vitruvius expressly mentions edifices of this class. In Greece and Ionia, indeed, remains of theatres, formed after this manner, are not uncommon ; and the construction was at once cheap and secure.—The sudden changes of the atmosphere, and the extremely violent winds to which Avignon is peculiarly subject, are mentioned as natural characteristics of that district.

At Aix (*Aqua Sextia*), we are detained by the enumeration and description of a great variety of antiquities ; and here also we have a specimen of the adulation which is paid to Bonaparte in all parts of France. M. MILLIN informs us that, since he left Aix, an antique column of Egyptian granite has been set up before the *Maison de ville*, and consecrated to the

* We have rendered this passage literally to shew in what light war is considered in France. Man is proper food for powder and ball ; and when he falls in battle, he is gathered in like a stack of corn in its season.

Emperor, with this inscription, composed by M. de St. Vincent:

" *Napoleoni I.*
Francorum Imperatori,
Principi optimo, invicto,
Templorum Restitutori,
Justitia, Legibus
Populos moderanti,
Victoriis, Concilio
Pacem fundanti,
Aquenses cives
Columnam ex Ægypto
A Romanis transvectam,
Nulli dicatam,
Dedicaverunt.
Ann. MDCCCVI.
Natali die XV. Aug."

So much for offerings to Imperial vanity. Let us now shift the scene from the interior to the shore of the Mediterranean, and attend to the author's account of *Toulon*; which is the chief naval arsenal on that part of the coast.

'The valley, in which *Toulon* is situated, is protected towards the north by high mountains; on the east and the west it is sheltered by hills of less elevation; and it spreads out towards the south, forming a plain of three leagues, of which this city occupies the centre. The name *Toulon* was not known till the 2d century of our æra. In the Itinerary of Antoninus, the city is called *Telo Martius*. The Romans had a dyeing manufactory here in the 5th century. It followed the fortune of the rest of Provence, but was more particularly ravaged by the Saracens at different times, who made many landings here; and several ages elapsed before the advantages of its situation were recognized. Louis XII. was the first who adverted to the benefits which might be derived from the safest port and the best road in the Mediterranean. He ordered a large tower to be built at the entrance of the port: but it was not finished till the reign of Francis I.—Henry IV. inclosed and fortified it: but it is indebted to Louis XIV. for those grand constructions which excite the astonishment of travellers. All bears the stamp of the genius of that great king.

'It is a delightful spectacle to behold the activity that reigns in this city. Here are seen waving in the air the flags of a multitude of vessels, destined to carry to the two worlds all that contributes to the comforts and pleasures of life; at a distance, beyond the towers and the chain which close the port, floating citadels defend the road, *which are always ready, at the first signal, to pursue* the presumptuous enemy, who should dare to approach them.* The noise of the axe, the chisel,

* M. MILLIN should have added, *to a certain distance*, that is, within the range of their batteries, for beyond this line the presumptuous enemy, who will be peeping, is not followed.

and the hammer, manifests the adroitness of the shipwrights in constructing those astonishing machines with which man pursues his enemy to the extremity of the vast ocean. The streets are covered by impetuous people, always in activity, who do not turn out of their way, except it be to give passage to the galley-slaves who are incessantly employed in carrying the timber, cordage, bolts, and whatever is necessary for ship-building. Goaded curiosity becomes impatient; we know not where to begin in a place presenting so much to see and admire.

* We had letters to Admiral Ganteaume, but the Emperor had nominated him to the command of the fleet at Brest; and M. *Christy-Palliere*, a distinguished officer, who had given proofs of his bravery in the memorable combat of Algeiras, was appointed *ad interim* to fill his place as Marine Prefect. He received us with politeness, and would himself conduct us to see the arsenal. During the breakfast which preceded this visit, we were amused by the recital of the brave exploits in which he had been engaged; we saw with interest the model of the *Muron*, that fortunate Frigate, to which we owe the return of our Emperor; we remarked also a chart of the coast, on which are indicated the batteries which defend and render it impregnable.

* The table of signals was hung up in his closet. One row of flags is disposed horizontally, and another is placed vertically; and in parallel squares are expressed the different objects that are susceptible of being denoted by signals. They make known the circumstances, of which they wish to transmit the signal, by the combination of two flags, to which each square corresponds. In order more effectually to secure the secret of the signals, they have made the vertical band moveable; so that, if any one is desirous of finding their signification, he must know which is the first flag in this band; moreover, the keeper of the signals is instructed never to leave the table in its right position, but to shift the moveable band to a number of arbitrary squares, that no curious person may be able to find the key to the signals which are in use.

* Nothing can more elevate man, nothing is more calculated to inspire him with a just pride, than a view of such an establishment as the arsenal: there all is grand in conception, plan, and execution.

* The entrance-port, built in 1738, after the designs of M. *Lange*, is embellished by detached Doric columns, with bas-reliefs, naval trophies, and two figures, one of Mars and the other of Minerva; in the centre is an escutcheon, with trophies and *cornua copie*, from which issue shells. The architecture of this building is deservedly admired, since it perfectly suits the place in which it stands.

* The entrance to the arsenal is always shut, to prevent the interruption of the workmen by the curious; among whom, also, might be mixed evil-disposed persons, or the accomplices of the galley-slaves, whose least culpable project would be to assist their escape. After having passed the gate, where a ticket of admission must be shewn when the party is not accompanied by a superior officer, we find ourselves in the great building-yard. They were then repairing the *Indomptable*, and three ships were on the stocks. The work was

going on with that activity which the august Chief of the empire knows how to impress on those whom he employs. The ship-wrights worked day and night, and on Sundays. Here every one is in a hurry, and yet no confusion occurs. The workmen chaunt provincial songs to the sound of their tools. Galley-slaves carry the beams, the planks, the anchors, the cables, and perform the hardest work. They are distinguished by a particular dress, and their sharp cries unite with the horrible clanking of their chains.

‘ If the model of the *Muron* had afforded us pleasure, what was our delight at seeing the identical frigate? She carries 36 guns.

‘ The basin, constructed by the celebrated engineer *Grognard*, was intitled above all to our attention; it is an astonishing work, considering the numberless obstacles which were to be vanquished before it could be executed, and the inconceivable operations to which the nature of the place obliged him to have recourse.

‘ When large ships were built, they were launched formerly by the same means which were employed in launching ordinary vessels: but the danger of this operation, for a mass so enormous, was incalculable. The builders have therefore contrived to remedy this inconvenience by the construction of a basin, in which the water of the sea is admitted to the vessel, and conducts it into the port. The genius of the engineer *Grognard* knew how to conquer difficulties which seemed to oppose themselves to the execution of such a project; difficulties, too, which were augmented by the envy, bad faith, and personal interest of his enemies. This wonderful work is at the extremity of the dock-yard, towards the sea. For its execution, M. *Grognard* made an immense raft, on which he placed the enormous *caisson* in which they were to build the basin.

‘ It was intended at first to make this *caisson* on shore, and to launch it into the water in the same way as a vessel is launched: but the artisans were fearful of its foundering, and therefore constructed it on the spot on which they meant to sink it in the sea. It was filled with iron and brass cannon, to the number of 1800, and of the heaviest weight that could be found. After having thus sunk the *caisson*, they built within it the basin, in the shape of a vessel, with hewn stone. This basin [or dry dock] is 180 feet long, 80 broad, and 18 deep.

‘ When the entrance of this basin is closed, and they wish to lay it dry, 28 pumps are worked by strong galley-slaves, who in eight hours perform the operation. To repair a vessel, she is conducted into this basin, which is closed by means of a *bateau-porte*, that is, a little box-like vessel, each extremity of which slides in a groove. When water is to be let into the basin, they unload this little vessel, and the sea lifts it up. This conical boat, which shuts up the entrance of the basin, moves in different grooves cut in the solid masonry, according as the basin is wanted to be of greater or less length. Here ships of war are built and repaired. — When the hull of a vessel is finished, she is conducted to the port, to be masted, rigged, and armed. The business at the port corresponds to that which is going on in the yard. At the extremity of the mole is a machine for getting in the masts. Here also the galley-slaves fill the
casks

casks with water from a fountain appropriated to the use of the navy ; here they collect and coil the cordage, &c. All resembles the buzzing of a hive of bees, or the activity of an ant-hill.

' Vice-admiral *Latouche* had required the construction of a fire-ship ; it was finished, and put at the disposal of the commandant ; it was designed to act against the English, who shewed themselves every day in our road.

' The English, joined with the Spaniards, possessed themselves of Toulon in 1793, during the war of the Revolution ; and on evacuating the port they burnt and sunk many vessels. We have tried to raise them, but some hulls remain which we cannot move, excepting piece-meal, by diving. We have brought forty-four divers from Naples, who are paid five franks per day, and have the half of all that they bring up. Among these articles, however, few are of great value, since in most places the fire consumed the vessel to the interior of the wood, which proves that it must have burnt a long time under water ; but every thing which is metallic is of use. The divers employ in this business chisels and knives six feet long, which have a beam for the handle, of a given dimension. They thrust the edge wherever they chuse, and, by the aid of a rammer worked in a boat by the galley-slaves, they drive the instrument into the wood. Whatever is detached by this operation is instantly fished up. Each diver, before he goes down, makes the sign of the cross, and does not remain under water more than two or three minutes.'

The mast-house, the spinning-house, the rope-house, (or rather stone-arched walk, 320 toises or 640 yards long,) the sail-yard, the smiths-shop (resembling the cavern of the Cyclops,) the foundery, the cooperage, the timber-yard, the carver's shops, &c. are all distinctly noticed, followed by an account of the several magazines, (the general depôt having been burnt by the English, and not yet rebuilt,) of the armoury, (which, since it was stripped by the English, has not regained its former splendor,) of the model-room, &c.; but our extract has been already protracted to an inconvenient length. The next chapter takes us to "the house of bondage," to the habitation allotted for the galley-slaves, and describes their chains and punishment : but we shall not enlarge on this degrading part of the history of man. The only consoling thought, which is offered to us on this subject, is a hint from the traveller respecting the necessity of ameliorating the condition of these wretches. We are better pleased by accompanying him in the Admiral's barge to the ships lying in the outer road, and in his visit to Fort la Malgue, (now called Fort *Joubert*, named after the General whose remains are there interred,) from the top of which the panorama of Toulon has been taken. As for the town of Toulon, we are informed that it is one of the best-built and handsomest in Provence ; that it is lighted at night

by fountains; and that in the streets the waters of the neighbouring hills are thrown up from eighty fountains, which play incessantly, and produce a pleasing effect. The harbour for merchant-ships is reported to be not one-third as large as that of Marseilles: but M. MILLIN speaks of it as capacious enough for the trade of the place. Since the Revolution, the manufactories both of soap and of brandy, for which Toulon was celebrated, have declined. The population of this place varies much, as work in the dock-yards is more or less brisk: but at an average it may be stated at 26,000. The environs of Toulon are represented as singularly inviting to the naturalist.

From the great national manufactory of floating castles, carrying machines which vomit fire and destruction, the scene changes to a region of rural tranquillity, where Hygeia has erected her temple, and where the landscape and the air are singularly inviting; we mean *Hyères*. This is the next place to which the traveller proceeds, and he calls it the new *Hesperides*. His description of it will probably afford some pleasure to our readers:

‘ Nothing could be more charming than the country which surrounded us. The soil was covered with fig-trees and olives. We crossed a beautiful valley, by the side of a rivulet which occasionally formed little waterfalls from the projections of the rocks, between which grew large clumps of the *Laurus nobilis*, and of the *Nerium* or oleander. On the left is an eminence, which the peasants call the *Black Hill*, and a small valley which they denominate *Paradise*, on account of its fertility and delightful situation. We entered one of the country-houses, where we saw a large garden of oranges. The plain of *Hyères* now opened to our view, covered with olives; the road which traverses it forms an agreeable walk, skirted by olives and fig-trees, and along which flow small streams, to water the fields. The palm-trees, which we noticed at a distance, indicated the delightful situation of the town. *Hyères* is built, for the most part, on the side of a hill, which is in the shape of an amphitheatre, keeping off the north winds, and looking towards the sea. The summit is bare; and having several points, it resembles, at a distance, a fort intended for the protection of the town.—Some derive the name *Hyères* from the Greek *Ἱερά*; [sacred,] but it seems rather to come from *area*, since in the old charts this place is called *Castrum Arcarum*. It was here that most of the pilgrims embarked who went to the Holy Land.

‘ The interior of the town is not pleasant, the houses being gloomy, and the streets narrow and steep. Formerly it contained several convents.

‘ At the bottom of the hill, where the old town stands, are some modern buildings, the high street, the square, and those houses and inns which accommodate strangers who visit *Hyères* for the benefit of the climate; here also are those gardens which are so celebrated;

of which the most beautiful is that of M. Fille. His house, without being sumptuous, is elegant and well built, surrounded by a *parterre* which is made brilliant by a thousand flowers; the tuberose, (*polyanthus tuberosa*,) the cassia, (*Mimosa farnesiana*,) and the jasmine of Cca, (*Nyctanthes sambac*,) there perfumed the air with a heavenly odour. The gardens of Alcinous and Armida, however splendid they may appear to the imagination when depicted by romance-writers and poets, are exceeded by that of M. Fille, which has been considerably augmented by the *Jardin du Roi* having been united to his own. Here we could almost believe that we had quitted our connection with the earth, and were tenants of those smiling groves in which virtuous spirits enjoy eternal and unalterable happiness. The trees are so close to each other, that it would be impossible to penetrate the wood, except by the paths which are made along it. Eighteen thousand orange-trees, all loaded with flowers and fruit, afford refuge among their leaves to an infinite number of nightingales, which are incessantly warbling, and seem to be addressing a hymn to *Nature*, whose goodness has furnished them with an asylum so shady and perfumed; while many other birds, partaking of the same habitation, unite their notes in this striking concert;—the laborious bee, in the mean time, buzzing from flower to flower, in a place which furnishes such ample materials for the collection of its honey. The water which falls from the mountains is daily distributed to each grove, by means of trenches cut in the earth, or wooden pipes which fit into each other.—

‘This garden also presents many varieties of the citron, of the Seville orange, sweet-smelling citron, bergamots, and pomegranates; and it contains a considerable number of fruit-trees, which are breaking under the weight of peaches and pears of all kinds. We were cautioned to beware of the thorns with which the branches of the orange-trees are armed, since a wound made by them would fester, become painful, and be difficult to be healed: but this representation is imaginary, and is made to keep strangers from gathering the fruit.’

An account of the garden of M. *Beauregard* follows; which, though less celebrated, is more extensive and varied: but we must not enter into this detail, nor can we at present accompany M. MILLIN any farther in his route. Having afforded different specimens of his narrative, by transcribing his remarks on a monument of antiquity, on a naval arsenal, and on a scene of rural beauty, we shall now lay him on the shelf; promising, however, again to pay our respects to him in a future article, if our engagements will permit us to have that pleasure,

[To be continued.]

ART. VII. *Récherches Physico-Chimiques, &c. ; i. e. Physico-chemical Researches respecting the (Galvanic) Pile ; on the Chemical Preparation and the Properties of Potassium and Sodium ; on the Decomposition of the Boracic Acid ; on the Fluoric, Muriatic, and Oxy-muriatic Acids ; on the Chemical Action of Light ; on Vegetable and Animal Analysis, &c.* By MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD, Members of the Institute, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo, Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

THE authors of these volumes are distinguished for the assiduity and success with which they have cultivated the subject of Galvanism : they were among the first of the continental philosophers to repeat and confirm Dr. Davy's experiments on the decomposition of the alkalies ; and, since that time, they have both co-operated with him in the farther prosecution of his discoveries, and have suggested new and important objects of research. It appears that the present ruler of France has either the policy or the vanity to patronize science, and has accordingly supplied the polytechnic school at Paris with a large Galvanic apparatus, which was fortunately assigned to the management of MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD ; who now offer to the world the result of their associated labours. Their publication, as they inform us, ' is divided into four parts ; the first contains the results of the experiments which they have made on the Pile ; the second has for its object the preparation of potassium and sodium by chemical means, and the phænomena which these substances present, when they are placed in contact with the different bodies in nature ; the third is principally composed of researches concerning the fluoric, muriatic, and oxy-muriatic acids, and on the manner in which light acts in chemical phænomena ; and the fourth relates to the analysis of vegetable and animal substances.'

MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD also remark that, as they were occupied about the same objects with Dr. Davy, they judged it necessary to be careful in noting the dates of their experiments ; this they have accordingly done in all cases ; and they have even stated the day on which their papers were read, that on which they were published, and the journals in which they were printed. As some of their conclusions differ from those of Professor Davy, they have endeavoured to state these differences as clearly as possible ; and for this purpose they have drawn out a table of their respective opinions. Since the phænomena which the new metals present may be explained either on the principle of their being simple bodies, or as being compounds of metal and hydrogen, they have brought together at the end of the work all the arguments which may be adduced in favour of both the hypotheses, leaving the reader to form his opinion of their comparative merits.

After

After these introductory observations, we enter on the first division of the work, 'Researches on the Pile.' The authors begin by a minute description of their apparatus, which could not be made very intelligible without the accompanying engravings; afterward proceeding to investigate the causes which affect the energy of the Pile, in connection with which they give a general view of the hypotheses that have been proposed to account for its action ;

'Some philosophers (they observe) suppose that this energy, other circumstances being equal, depends solely on the conducting power of the saline solutions. Others, at the head of whom Dr. Wollaston must be placed, attribute it to the chemical action of these solutions, and especially to the oxydation of the metals. The explanation which Professor Davy gives of it, in a memoir which has been *crowned at the Institute*, (Phil. Trans. 1807,) maintains in some degree the medium between the two preceding explanations. According to him, the electric energy of the metals with respect to each other, and that of the other substances which compose the Pile, are the causes which disturb the electric equilibrium ; and it is the strong tendency of different chemical agents to be attracted, some by negative and others by positive surfaces, which re-establishes it.'

After having stated that it is necessary to distinguish the electric from the chemical energy of the Pile, and that these energies do not always exist in the same ratio, MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD relate a number of experiments which they performed for the purpose of measuring this latter force. The fluid which is interposed between the metallic plates has a considerable influence in this respect ; a certain number of plates, moistened with acid, decompose the alkalies ; while a greater number of pairs with water, or with solutions of neutral salts, do not decompose them, although the electric tension is more considerable. A great difference is remarked to have taken place in the effects produced by the Pile, according as the wires terminated in pure water or in saline or acid solutions, the decomposition in this latter case being much more considerable : the action was also increased when a greater length of wire was immersed in the fluid. These experiments do not, however, appear to us altogether to admit of the conclusions that are deduced from them ; we conceive that they rather shew the relative facility with which the fluid is decomposed in which the wires terminate, than the energy with which the apparatus acts. The authors relate a comparative experiment, in which first a quantity of acid, afterward a certain quantity of alkali sufficient to neutralize the acid, and then the solution of the salt resulting from the union of the acid and the alkali, were successively submitted to the action of the wires ;

wires; when it was observed that the greatest quantity of decomposition was produced where the acids were employed, next with the alkali, and least of all with the neutral salt. Perfectly pure water, they found, was not at all decomposed by the wires : but the action took place on the addition of the smallest quantity of acid. This they ascribe to the inferior conducting power of water, which does not permit the electric fluid to pass through it in sufficient quantity, nor with sufficient rapidity. They consider the quantity of gas, which is produced by the wires when terminating in a given fluid, to be the best measure of the energy of the Pile ; and that, other circumstances being the same, it is in proportion to the cube root of the number of plates employed. The general conclusion is that the chemical energy of the Pile depends on its tension, on the conducting power of the fluid with which it is charged, and on the facility with which it is decomposed.

In the next section, the authors relate the effects which their great battery produced on different bodies that were subjected to its action, particularly on the alkalies and earths. Potash and soda were easily decomposed in the usual manner ; barytes, lime, and strontites, were also decomposed by the medium of mercury, with which they formed an amalgam : but magnesia they could not affect by their most powerful apparatus ; nor were they more successful with the other earths. We are informed that the method of applying mercury to the negative wire, so as to assist in the decomposition of substances containing oxygen, was first suggested by Dr. Seebeck of Jena, and that he was the first who applied it to ammonia. Dr. Davy adopted this process, and procured a substance which, from its analogy to the amalgam formed by potassium and sodium with mercury, he regarded as an amalgam of mercury with the metallic basis of ammonia : but he was not able to obtain the metal in a separate state ; nor indeed could he resolve the amalgam into any thing except mercury, hydrogen, and ammonia. Our scientific readers are acquainted with the difficulties which have embarrassed this part of chemical theory, and with the genius and industry which Professor Davy has displayed in his endeavours to elucidate it. The present authors have adopted a different view of the subject : after having carefully analyzed the amalgam, they have been unable to procure any thing from it except mercury, hydrogen, and ammonia ; and they do not suppose that any metallic basis of ammonia enters into its composition. They consequently conclude that ammonia, as was formerly supposed, consists merely of hydrogen and azote ; and that, in the present state of our knowledge, we have no proof of its containing any metallic basis. We shall

not

not presume to decide on the merits of so difficult and abstruse a point of theory: but we may remark that the opinion of these philosophers is more simple, and seems to accord better with other facts; and it does not appear improbable, from the analogy which subsists between the metals and hydrogen, that they should bear the same relation to the alkalies.

We now enter on the second part of the work, the preparation of potassium and sodium by chemical means, and the action which these metals exercise on other bodies. The method, which is recommended for procuring them, consists in heating potash and soda in a gun-barrel with iron turnings. The directions for every part of the operation are extremely minute, with respect both to the preparation of the substances and to the necessary apparatus. The authors pay more attention to the purity of the alkalies than has been customary, and they suppose that, from a want of this nicety, Dr. Davy has in some instances been led into error. With respect to the theory of this process, they give the following perspicuous view of the subject:

‘There are two ways of accounting for the phenomena which the preparation of potassium presents. In one, we suppose that potash is a metallic oxyd; and that iron at a high temperature reduces this oxyd, and leaves the metal potassium. In the other, it is supposed that potash is a simple body, and that, being completely deprived of water, it combines with hydrogen, and forms a compound of a metallic appearance which is potassium. In both, we admit as a demonstrated truth that potash, melted by a red heat, still retains much water; that this water, which heat alone cannot remove, is decomposed by the iron; and that there results from it a great disengagement of hydrogen: but in the first it is supposed that all the hydrogen of the decomposed water is disengaged, and that the iron is oxydated at the same time by the oxygen of the water and by that of the potash: while, in the second, it is supposed that all the hydrogen of the decomposed water is not disengaged; that a part of it is combined with the potash at the moment when it becomes dry; and that the iron is only oxydated by the oxygen of the water. Thus in one of the hypotheses potassium is regarded as a simple metallic body; in the other, as a compound of hydrogen and dry potash, or as a true hyduret of potash.’

The authors postpone the delivery of their own opinion to a subsequent part of the work: but they observe that they were not able by this kind of process to obtain the metals of barytes, strontites, nor lime.

The succeeding section furnishes an enumeration of the physical properties of potassium and sodium. Generally, the account agrees exactly with that of Professor Davy, and differs only a little with respect to the melting point and specific gravity of the

the metals; which difference is ascribed by the authors to **their** having employed the alkalies in a purer state. — The action of potassium and sodium on each other forms the subject of the next section; and then we have an account of the action of water on them. In this case, the potassium is converted into potash by the absorption of oxygen; and, from the quantity of hydrogen disengaged, the quantity of oxygen is calculated which unites with potassium to convert it into potash. The estimate agrees very nearly with that which was previously made by Dr. Davy. — Besides, however, the oxyds of potassium and sodium, which form potash and soda respectively, each of these metals is capable of combining with two other doses of oxygen; one of which is smaller, and the other greater, than that which forms potash and soda. The first of these, that in which the oxygen exists in the smallest proportion, is derived from placing the metals in such a situation that air and moisture may have access to them in a small quantity only; and the other oxyd is obtained by suddenly heating the metals in oxygen. This last oxyd, which requires for its formation much more oxygen than potash or soda, is possessed of totally different properties from these bodies. Dr. Davy, it would appear, has never obtained it in any of his experiments, though he mentions his having burnt the alkaline metals in oxygen. It is not easy to account for this discordance in the results. The present authors remark on it: ‘although Prof. Davy expresses himself so positively, we cannot agree with him in this point; and it is difficult to conceive that he can have made the experiment, because he is too accurate an observer not to have perceived results such as we have been relating.’ This notable difference of opinion, which exists between Professor Davy and the French chemists, respecting the oxyd of potassium and sodium, is fully stated in the exact words employed by the respective authors.

We now come to a numerous set of experiments on the action of combustible bodies, which are not metallic, on potassium and sodium. The first of which we have an account is hydrogen; and we learn that this substance will not unite with the metals, either at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, or at one which is considerably elevated, yet that there is a mean degree at which the combination is readily formed. The hydruret of potash thus produced is grey, not metallic in its appearance, and infusible. At a moderate degree of heat, it does not inflame, either in common air or in oxygen, but burns vividly at an elevated temperature; it is decomposed by the application of heat, when the hydrogen is disengaged in the form of gas, and the potassium is left free. Dr. Davy was
not

not able to form this combination, probably in consequence of his not employing the suitable degree of heat. Phosphureted hydrogen and sulphureted hydrogen both unite with potassium and sodium, and form substances which have been particular objects of attention, in consequence of their relation to chemical theory. It has been a subject of investigation, whether in these compounds the potassium and sodium retain their proper metallic state, or whether they do not revert to the condition of potash and soda; so that the substances formed are nothing more than hydro-sulphurets or hydro-phosphurets of potash or soda. If this be the case, it is concluded that the oxygen, which has converted the metals into oxyd, must have been derived from the hydro-sulphuret or the hydro-phosphuret, and therefore forms one of their constituent parts. The opinions of Dr. Davy and the present authors are at variance on this point; the former supposing that these substances contain oxygen, and the latter maintaining the contrary idea. The following are the conclusions which they deduce from their experiments:

1st. That sulphureted hydrogen gas contains a volume of hydrogen equal to its own bulk. 2d. That phosphureted hydrogen gas contains probably once and a half its bulk of hydrogen. 3d. That sulphureted hydrogen gas may be decomposed by potassium and sodium; and that, in this decomposition, is developed precisely the same quantity of hydrogen that the metal alone would give with water. 4th. That phosphureted hydrogen gas is decomposed by potassium and sodium, in such a manner that the phosphorus is combined with the metal, and the hydrogen is disengaged. 5th. That the sulphureted hydrogen and phosphureted hydrogen gases do not contain any oxygen; or at least that the experiments made by Dr. Davy to prove it do not lead to this consequence. 6th. That sulphur and phosphorus do not contain any oxygen, or at least that the experiments by which Professor Davy endeavours to demonstrate the existence of this gas, in these bodies, are not conclusive; consequently, we must still continue to regard as simple or indecomposable these two combustibles, which Dr. Davy wishes to assimilate, with respect to their nature and composition, to vegetable substances. Nevertheless, it is not to be doubted that sulphur contains a little hydrogen, from the experiments of MM. A. Berthollet and Davy; and it is probably the case with respect to phosphorus.'

From what has been observed above, it will be understood that the conclusions of MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD are derived from experiments in which they found that the hydrogen, which results from the action of potassium on sulphureted hydrogen, is equal in quantity to that which the potassium would have produced from the action of nitre; and that the sulphuret which is formed, being decomposed by an acid, gives out a volume of sulphureted hydrogen gas, equal to

to that which was owing to the sulphureted gas employed in the experiment.

The action of potassium and sodium on the undecomposed acids has given rise to some very interesting results. The experiments with the boracic acid are very elaborate, and have, as the authors conceive, led them to the decomposition of the acid. They employed every means for obtaining the acid in the most pure state; it was then vitrified, pounded, and mixed with the potassium, and heated. They obtained borate of potash, and a peculiar brownish-green substance. In this operation, a part of the acid is supposed to have given its oxygen to the potassium, and to have disengaged the substance mentioned above, which is the base, and which it is proposed to denominate *bore*. This supposed base is not of a metallic nature, as Dr. Davy had concluded, but is a combustible body, analogous to carbon, phosphorus, and sulphur. The French chemists differ materially from Dr. Davy, with respect to the proportion of oxygen that is necessary to convert this base into the acid state. They take much pains to lay down the precise day on which their experiments and those of Dr. Davy were performed and made public; and it would appear from the statement that they had the advantage in respect of priority. The properties of *bore* are detailed with much minuteness; it possesses a brownish-green colour; it is solid, insipid, and is neither acid nor alkaline; it does not melt nor become volatile at a high degree of heat; it is quite insoluble in water, in alcohol, in ether, and in oil; boiling-water does not appear to affect it; it is acted-on by oxygen at ordinary temperatures, but in a high temperature it unites with it, and the acid is formed.

Next, the action of potassium and sodium on ammoniac was very minutely examined by the authors: the ammoniac disappears by degrees, and is replaced, as we are informed, by a volume of hydrogen exactly equal to that which the potassium employed would have produced with water; while the potassium itself is converted into a very fusible, olive-green substance. This result, as our scientific readers must be well aware, does not altogether agree with Dr. Davy's experiments: he always found that a less quantity of hydrogen was disengaged than with water; and, to account for the cause of this difference, he was led to a long train of minute experiments, and of very abstruse reasoning. The authors before us, as usual, notice this dissimilarity of opinion: but we do not perceive that they point out, nor indeed can we assign, any plausible method of accounting for it. — A long series of experiments on the action of potassium and sodium on alkaline,

line, earthy, and metallic salts, concludes the second division of the work, and the first volume.

The contents of the third part are not less interesting than those which precede them. It consists of researches, 1st. On the fluoric acid: 2d. On the water which may exist in gases in the hygrometrical state, or in the state of combination: 3d. On the muriatic and the oxygenated muriatic acids: 4th. On the production of a particular fluid, in treating oxy-muriatic acid by phosphorus: 5th. On the property which water possesses, of facilitating the decomposition of the carbonates by fire: 6th. On the manner in which light acts in chemical phenomena: 7th. On the quantity of water which potash and soda retain when exposed to a red heat: 8th. On the respective arguments which have been alleged in favour of the two hypotheses, — the one in which potassium and sodium are regarded as hydrurets, — the other in which they are deemed simple substances: 9th. On all the points in which MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD differ from Dr. Davy.

As it would not be practicable for us to follow the authors through all these subjects, we shall select those which we conceive to be the most interesting; and we shall, in the first place, give some account of their remarks on the existence of water in the gases. In order to discover the presence of water in the hygrometric state, they employed the agency of a newly-discovered gas, mentioned in a former part of the work, called the fluo-boric gas; which, whenever it meets with any water, forms a dense vapour which is precipitated. The different gases that were made the subject of experiment were placed over mercury in contact with substances of the most drying nature, and then had the fluo-boric gas added to them. By these means, it was found that those gases which are extremely soluble in water cannot contain the smallest quantity of it in the hygrometric state; because, as soon as they come in contact with water, it absorbs them: of this nature is the muriatic acid gas, which in no mode of formation can ever be made to produce any vapour with the fluo-boric gas. The authors afterward inquired whether any of the gases contain water in a state of combination: for which purpose they examined sulphureted hydrogen, carbonic acid, sulphureous and nitrous gases, the gaseous oxyd of azote, the fluo-boric, the silicated fluoric, the muriatic, and the oxy-muriatic acids; and it was found, by the products which they formed with other bodies, that the only one of them into which combined water enters as a constituent is muriatic acid gas. The presence of this water was rendered evident, by combining the muriatic acid gas with the vitreous oxyd. of lead;

lead; from which combination result muriate of lead, and muriatic acid containing a large quantity of water. This water they conceive to be essential to the constitution of the gas.

We now proceed to an examination of the properties of the muriatic and oxy-muriatic acids in general, and more especially of their relation to each other. The authors endeavoured to ascertain with accuracy the proportion of water which enters into muriatic acid; they employed, as a medium of analysis, the oxyd of silver; and they found that about a quarter of its weight of muriatic acid gas consists of combined water. The theory of those operations, in which muriatic acid is converted into oxy-muriatic acid, is easily explained on this principle; and the proportion and quantity of the ingredients agree very well with the estimates. This is particularly the case when oxy-muriatic gas is decomposed by hydrogen; when, by a careful examination of the specific gravities of these substances, it is found that the oxy-muriatic acid retains exactly the quantity of oxygen which ought to be changed into water in order to form muriatic acid gas. On the contrary, since muriatic acid cannot exist in the state of gas without water; and when it does not contain any water it always forms a part of some combination, it follows that oxy-muriatic acid gas ought not to be decomposed but by bodies which, as the metals and sulphur, may absorb both its principles by those which can combine with the muriatic acid in the dry state, or by such as contain either water ready formed or hydrogen which can form water with the oxygen contained in the oxy-muriatic acid. This is a discussion which may be said now to divide the opinions of the English chemists; and respecting which a very acute and learned controversy has been carried on between Dr. Davy and Mr. Murray. The present authors have entered very minutely into the consideration of this question, and have examined each individual fact, with respect to the influence that it might be supposed to have on each opinion. Their conclusion is that the hypothesis, which considers the oxy-muriatic acid as a compound of oxygen and muriatic acid, is more agreeable to the general analogy of chemical science, than that which supposes oxy-muriatic acid to be a simple substance. According to the first hypothesis, we must suppose that the muriates are of a different nature from the salts, and from the same identical salts when they are dissolved in water; a double decomposition and a double change must be supposed to take place; and after all, some difficulties will remain which we can scarcely solve. On the old hypotheses, we may account for every thing in the most easy manner, and in a way quite analogous to other facts in which oxygen

is transferred from one substance to another. We have only to bear in mind that, whenever oxy-muriatic gas is changed into muriatic gas, this latter must receive a proportion of water necessary for its constitution; a circumstance which appears naturally to follow from the fact that combined water is essential to the existence of muriatic acid gas.

The concluding section, in which MM. GAY-LUSSAC and THENARD discuss the merits of the two hypotheses respecting the nature of the alkaline metals, potassium and sodium, — whether they be in fact simple metals, or whether they are not properly hydrurets, — contains a very minute and comprehensive digest of all the different arguments that have been adduced on both sides of the question. Originally, the authors adopted the latter of these opinions: but they candidly own that they now deem it insufficient to account for all the facts which have been discovered; and that they agree in the view of the subject originally proposed by Dr. Davy, that potassium and sodium are specific metals. They have in this recantation manifested a degree of candor which is highly commendable, but which is not so frequently observed as the interests of science would require.

Our time will not permit us to enter into any farther analysis of the contents of these volumes. They are indeed so comprehensive, that the report which we have extracted from them must be considered as exhibiting only a very small portion of the interesting matter which occurs in the perusal of them. They exhibit a striking combination of assiduity, accuracy, and liberality, which is very creditable to the talents and characters of the authors, and must greatly conduce to the advancement of science.

ART. VIII. *Exposé statistique du Tonkin, &c. i. e. A Statistical Account of Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Siam, Laos, and Lac-tho.* By M. M——n; composed from the Report of M. de la Bissachere, Missionary in Tonquin. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 520. Dulau, London. 1811.

AMID the contradictory opinions which still divide the republic of letters, on the subject of Hindoo civilization, it is no small satisfaction to obtain a statistical report of one of the most populous and interesting countries in the neighbourhood of the great peninsula. The present work, if it does not profess to settle with philosophic precision the particular stage in the progress of society at which the nations whom it describes have arrived, supplies in abundance the *data* which are requisite to the decision, and affords ample materials for exercising the discriminating

powers of future inquirers. The author, we understand, is a man of eminence both in the political and the literary world; and *M. de la Bissathère*, from whose report the work is chiefly composed, was not a transitory traveller, but a resident for the space of eighteen years in the empire of Tonquin; and he is probably the only person at present in Europe who has been an inhabitant of that empire. In the course of his long peregrination, he not only acquired the language of the country, but was enabled to view society in all its aspects. Admitted, by his profession, into the intimate confidence of his Christian brethren, whose numbers in Tonquin are not inconsiderable, he became connected with many eminent officers of state, and bore at one time a Mandarin's commission. The Tonquinese government was pleased on different occasions, to direct that the attendance on his person should be performed by their subjects; and he had the honour of being admitted, more than once, to the presence of the reigning sovereign. When to this ample source of materials are added, as we understand from the preface, the literary contributions of various other residents in Tonquin, we might be justified in presuming that these volumes are rich in new and curious information; a presumption which the perusal of them fully confirms, while it makes us regret that the work exhibits some deficiency of arrangement, and that longer time was not bestowed in the preparation of it, so that it should come before the public a correct and matured composition.

Tonquin appears to have been originally peopled from China, by southward emigrations from the adjoining provinces of that empire. For many ages, its inhabitants seem to have been composed of tribes of wandering barbarians, such as still exist in the mountainous provinces of Tsiampa and Laos; and even after the consolidation of the fertile regions of Tonquin and Cochin-China under a regular government, their sovereigns acknowledged for many ages a subjection to the Emperor of China. Their distance, however, from the centre of that empire, the natural strength of their frontiers, and the rapid augmentation of their power from increase of population, encouraged them to make persevering efforts to throw off the yoke, and assert a complete exemption from foreign controul. Hence a long series of sanguinary contests, and repeated alternations of success and failure, which have long been productive of a rooted national antipathy to the Chinese, but which accomplished only in a later age the establishment of Tonquinese independence. During the latter part of the last century, after the Chinese power became less formidable, the horrors of civil war succeeded those of foreign hostility, and in 1774 a contest broke out

but which continued during twenty-eight years. Three brothers of a family in Cochin-China, called Tay-son, contrived to usurp the sovereignty, to put to death the nearest heirs to the crown, and to oblige their young relation, the present Emperor, to seek his safety in flight. After various unsuccessful endeavours to recover his authority, this prince was at last enabled to contract (in 1788), a treaty of alliance with France; which, though not productive of assistance from a tottering court, procured him the co-operation of individuals of that country. Aided by these, and by the returning loyalty of his subjects, he succeeded, after many sanguinary combats, in uniting all the provinces of the empire under his command in 1802. He was then of the age of forty-five, and had given proofs in his adversity of the most distinguished virtues; a character which, it is greatly to be regretted, has undergone considerable deterioration since he has attained the undisturbed possession of power. Instead of the exercise of that humanity and generosity which the Tonquinese were led to expect from his conduct, during the long struggle for the recovery of his hereditary claims, they are oppressed with enormous taxes for the maintenance of a great army; and their veneration for the person of their sovereign is impaired by his attachment to pleasure, his infidelity in matters of religion, and his vindictive treatment of his former opponents.

The first volume of the work before us is divided into two parts; the one giving a description of the physical properties of the country, and the other delineating its political condition and national character. In the former of these, after having pointed out a variety of errors into which Europeans have fallen by mistaking Asiatic names, the author enters at some length into a geographical account of the Tonquinese dominions, from which we have extracted the subsequent particulars:

' Situation and Climate.—The points of contact between the kingdom of Tonquin and the territory of China are generally deserts, the water in which is unwholesome, and the boundary-lines have, in consequence, not been accurately defined. Between Tonquin and that part of China which is called the province of Canton, runs a chain of impassable mountains, with only one open space, in which a great wall has been constructed; one of the gates of which is guarded on the Chinese, and the other on the Tonquinese side. The sovereign of Tonquin has lately assumed the title of Emperor, and has united under his sway the countries of Cochin-China, Tiampa, Cambodia, Laos, and a province to the north of Laos, unknown to Europeans, called Lac-tho. These five divisions are not, however, collectively equal in either population or resources to Tonquin. They are separated from each other by chains of mountains; and the

inhabitants of each, while they join in acknowledging the sway of a common sovereign, continue to preserve their separate and distinctive character. Tonquin and the lower part of Cochin-China abound with rivers, of which more than fifty have their *embouchures* in the sea. The largest is the river which takes the name of Cambodia from the region whence it flows. After having passed the walls of the capital of Cochin-China, it pours its waters into the ocean, and is navigable for vessels of any depth, fifty miles from its mouth. The coasts of Tonquin, by forming a gulph, render the communication between different parts of the empire easier by water than by land; though the navigation is much impeded by shallows, and the beds of their rivers are deficient in depth. There is not in all Tonquin a harbour or roadstead fit for the reception of men of war: but in Upper Cochin-China, in latitude $16^{\circ}. 7'. 18''$, is a bay called by the natives Han, and by Europeans Turon, which is one of the finest in the universe. Shipping is there protected from every wind, and may anchor in the greatest numbers: but the government-vessels are, notwithstanding, in general stationed in a roadstead near the mouth of the Cambodia, which, though inferior to the other, is preferred on account of the facility which it affords for running up the river and resorting to the naval arsenals.

In regard to climate, Tonquin, like other countries in similar latitudes, has been munificently gifted by the hand of nature. A temperate heat produces a steady and gentle fermentation, and enlivens all that is perceptible of animation. The soil is fertile; all the senses afford enjoyment; the air is embalmed by the odour of the plants; the taste is feasted by the excellence of the fruits; while the beauty of the flowers and the richness of the prospect present an enchanting spectacle. He who has not visited the favoured regions in these latitudes can have no adequate conception of the extent of delight which our organs of sense are capable of receiving. While, on the one hand, the climate of Tonquin is exempt from severe cold, it is free likewise from the burning heats of Africa; the proximity of the sea, and the prevalence of easterly winds, which blow from the watery element, preserving a sufficient degree of moisture. Of the sensitive properties of the air of Tonquin, circumstances are related which must appear odd and even incredible to an European. If, in carrying a dead body past a betel-nut-garden, the coffin is not hermetically sealed, the effluvia has, it is said, the effect of vitiating the fruit, and, after some time, of destroying the trees. Certain it is that the influence of exhalations, noxious as they are in all countries, appears to be baneful in a particular degree in this; the inhabitants being under the necessity of sharpening their instruments of iron and steel almost every time that they are used. The month of February may be said to represent spring in this country; summer lasts during seven months, from the beginning of March to the end of September; October and November constitute the autumn; while December and January form the season of winter, if, in this climate, winter can be said to exist. The rains, though less strictly periodical in Tonquin than in other tropical regions, are in general violent from April to August, and their occurrence at this season moderates greatly the power of a vertical

sical sun. The months of March, April, and May, are the least healthy of the year: but so extensive a territory necessarily furnishes many exceptions to any general rule. The monsoons are less regular than in other parts of Asia, but sufficiently uniform to afford considerable assistance in long voyages. During three quarters of the year a westerly wind rises regularly at midnight, and the fishermen take advantage of it to get out to sea. The tides vary according to the season, the lowest being in May, June, and July, and the highest in November, December, and January; though even those are inferior to the tides in Europe. The *typhoon* in the Tonquin seas is less dreadful than a West India hurricane, inasmuch as it does not envelope resisting bodies in whirlwinds: but it lasts generally for the space of twenty-four hours, and blows from each of the four cardinal points in succession, beginning commonly from the east. The seafaring people run their ships into harbours and roadsteads on its first appearance; while on shore the doors are barricaded, and the roofs sometimes secured by ropes to prevent their being blown down.

It is generally believed in Tonquin that the maritime provinces have been gained from the sea, and various circumstances concur to favour that opinion. The number of rivers pouring down soil from the upper grounds must have tended to produce this effect in the course of ages; and in digging for wells, the inhabitants often meet with shells and the vestiges of fish. The soil towards the coast is in general slimy, and favourable for the cultivation of rice; while in the mountains it is often gravelly, but on the whole highly fertile. Some caverns are found in this country, of surprising magnitude; and mines of iron and other metals are in abundance. Mines of the precious metals also might, in all probability, be successfully worked: but the government, afraid of invasion from European avarice, prohibits all attempts of that kind. By a singular departure from the common course, a residence in a hilly part of this empire is in general less healthy than in the plain. This is owing to the bad quality of the water; which is caused, in the opinion of the inhabitants, by the fall of leaves from the trees, but more probably by the taint of copper mines.

The Tonquinese still retain, in their personal appearance, a considerable resemblance to their Chinese progenitors, though in some respects a difference may be remarked; their noses are less flat, and they are addicted to the rude custom of blackening their teeth and deepening the red of their lips. This operation takes place at the age of sixteen or seventeen, and gives an ungracious and often a harsh cast to their features, though they are delighted to escape at any hazard from the colour of white; which, even in the case of teeth, is obnoxious to their taste. Notwithstanding this disfiguration, beauty may be found among the women, whose eyes are large, black, and expressive. The women of the kingdom of Tonquin are accounted superior in personal attractions to their fellow-subjects in Cochin-China; at least, if we may draw an inference from

the choice of the Mandarins, who give a preference to females from the former quarter. The national antipathy to white operated as a prejudice against the English, who appeared some years ago in Tonquin, and were the fairest Europeans who had hitherto visited the coast. The Tonquinese, without being tall, are well made and healthy; it being a very rare thing to observe among them the existence of any bodily defect, except in the eye-sight. Their skins are soft, their senses of smell and touch are very delicate, and their sight is weak, but their hearing is not remarkable in either way. Their bodily powers are inferior to those of an European, owing evidently to the lightness of their food, and perhaps also to the influence of their climate; which, on strangers at least, has a relaxing and enervating effect. The females are marriageable at the age of twelve and thirteen, and generally become the mothers of numerous families. Every mother, whatever be her station, suckles her own child, and a hired nurse is a character wholly unknown in these regions. Twins at a birth are more common here than in Europe; and, provisions being abundant, a numerous family is accounted no burden.—The diseases in this country are materially different from those of Europe. Pleurisy, gout, and gravel, are rare: but fever, dysentery, and cutaneous complaints, particularly the leprosy, are common. The small-pox also sometimes makes dreadful ravages, both inoculation and vaccination being unknown. A singular complaint consists in having the hair and skin of an unvaried white; the lapse of years produces no change in this malady; which, however, is accompanied with no pain, and seems to engender no other disorder.

In regard to the population of the empire of Tonquin, considerable difficulty opposes the formation of any thing like a correct estimate; since the returns which are made, being connected with the imposition of taxes, are often defective, and are moreover considered as secrets of state. The most probable computation is that the whole population of the empire amounts to about twenty-three millions; of which Tonquin alone contains eighteen, and Cochin-China one million and a half. The countries of Tsiampa and Lao-tho may be supposed to contain each between 6 and 700,000; Cambodia and Laos about a million each. The ratio of increase has, during the present age, been much retarded by the ravages of civil war. Of ten provinces of which Tonquin consists, the most populous by far is that of Xunam, situated in the centre of the country, and forming a vast plain watered by many rivers, navigable for small craft. Bac-kinh, the capital, contains about 40,000 inhabitants; Han-vints between 15 and 20,000; Tran-hac,

Tran-hac, from 10 to 15,000; **Cau-sang**, between 7 and 8000; **Vi-hoang**, 6000; **Hun-nam**, 5000. The last two are situated on the great Tonquin river, and **Hun-nam** was the seat of the Dutch factory. **Phu-xuan**, the capital of Upper Cochin-China, has at present, in consequence of being the residence of the Emperor, a population of from 20 to 30,000. **Qui-phu**, **Sai-gou**, and **Qui-whou**, all in Cochin-China, may be set down at nearly 8000 each. A dreadful famine, which took place twenty years ago, in consequence of a drought, made sad havoc in the population; which otherwise appears to increase very rapidly. Few persons of either sex remain unmarried: a family of children is accounted an honour, and very soon proves to be an advantage, their labour yielding more than they cost; while in China, as it is well known, infants are exposed to perish, it is here common to purchase them; and in many cases in which polygamy exists, the object is not the gratification of voluptuousness, but the multiplication of progeny.

Animals.—It is generally agreed that the country of Laos is the most favourable region to the elephant; that animal being larger, stronger, and more docile here than in any other part of the world. At the age of thirty, when he has attained his full growth, he has been sometimes known of the height of sixteen feet, and of the length of thirteen. His pace is steady, and he never falls; his ordinary walk is equal in swiftness to the trot of a horse: but, on quickening it, he approaches to the rapidity of a horse's gallop; and though he may be out-run for a short distance by a fleet courser, none can keep up with him in a race of length. He marches with ease fifty miles in a day, and may be made to march one hundred. Balls enter his skin without proving fatal to him, unless they strike his forehead between the eyes. In regard to labouring cattle, a preference is given in Tonquin to buffaloes; which, from their superior strength and longer legs, are fitted to labour in marshy ground. They are likewise easily managed, being exempt from the character of ferocity which is attributed to them in their wild state. The Tonquinese horses are small, something like hussar-horses in Europe; and little pains are bestowed on fitting them either for war or for domestic purposes. They are never used for draught, and seldom for riding; the great people preferring to travel in palanquins or on elephants, and the middling ranks being apprehensive of exciting, by the display of property, the cupidity of their rulers. Hogs and poultry abound as in Europe, and goats and wild ducks are in immense quantities.

The elephants in their native state are apt to ravage the rice-fields, the fruit-trees, and sugar-canes, so that the inhabitants are obliged to keep watch, and to frighten them off by torches. The tigers are numerous, and of great agility in leaping, but unable to overtake a man in running, if the ground be level. The largest in Tonquin do not exceed three feet and a half in height, a size much below that of the royal tiger. Inferior as they are in magnitude, they possess in

Tonquin the characteristic audacity and cunning of their species; attacking, wherever they can, the young of the buffaloes, and venturing even into the dwellings of men. The inhabitants hunt the tiger with dogs, pikes, and fire-arms; when they are allowed to *can* them: but they seldom attempt this dangerous sport without going forth in considerable numbers. The boar is a frequent and an innoxious inhabitant of the forests: but the wild-dogs, larger than those of Europe, and marching in bodies, are very formidable. The mountain-rats, likewise large and voracious, devour the product of the earth, and are hunted with arrows by the savages in the north of Cochin-China, who feed on their flesh, and account it delicious. The country is infested also with the reptile tribe, some of which are venomous, and others are not; the largest is a serpent of the thickness of a man's thigh, which, taking its station, (like the *Boa* in India,) on the branch of a tree, and falling down on the passing animal, rolls itself around it, compresses it with irresistible force, and, after having broken its bones and extinguished life, proceeds to devour the carcase. Birds abound in the forests of Tonquin, and have often a beautiful plumage. Of birds of prey the largest and most voracious is the vulture, who ventures even to attack a man when he is alone.

Vegetable Productions.—The great article of growth in Tonquin, and that which forms the food of three-fourths of the inhabitants, is rice. It is here of the very best quality, and is computed to return, in good land, forty or fifty times the value of the seed. The soil requires no rest, and yields two crops in a year; one in July, the other in November, the rice being generally four months in the ground. Maize is also cultivated here, and a most convenient plant it is in any country, being highly nutritive, of abundant produce, and fitted to a variety of soils. Of the fruit-trees, the orange is the most distinguished, being better than in Europe, or in any other part of the world. Here are not fewer than twenty different kinds of it, varying in colour, taste, and size; some being as small as walnuts and others larger than citrons, but all pleasant and wholesome. Almost all the fruits of India are found here. The sugar-cane is common, but in a very imperfect state of culture. The same may be remarked of the coffee-tree, the natives discovering no partiality to the drink which we extract from its fruit. In the province of Xu-thai, are two mountains which produce cinnamon-trees superior even to those of Ceylon, but the trees of that description in the low country are very defective. Cotton-trees are abundant, and extremely useful for the purpose of clothing; mulberry-trees are also plentiful, and afford excellent foliage for the food of silk-worms. Of odoriferous wood, the most remarkable is a kind of aloe called *calembac*; the smallest particle of which, on being burned, perfumes a whole apartment. It is used in temples and palaces, and is sold for its weight in gold, Cochin-China being the country in which it is considered to be found in the highest perfection. Palm-trees are of great utility, partly for their fruit, partly for the durability of the timber of certain sorts of this tree when placed in the water; and also for the shelter afforded against the sun by their leaves when manufactured into hats. The fruit of the cocoa-tree is likewise of great service, not only for

for food, but for the cordage which is manufactured from its fibry covering, and finally for the cups which are made from the nut. The leaves, when at maturity, are ten or twelve feet in length, and serve for parasols against the sun, and in some measure for the purpose of writing-paper. The bamboo-tree is very common, and highly useful in Tonquin; its growth is of such rapidity, that it has been known to rise thirty feet in the space of six months. Ploughs, harrows, pick-axes, and all instruments of labour, are made of bamboo and iron; and fishing-implements, the timber-work, and the roofs of houses, are manufactured from this valuable tree.

‘However, as no good is without qualification, this abundance of the gifts of nature in Tonquin is accompanied by circumstances of an opposite character. Many trees have fruit and even leaves of a poisonous nature; which falling into the water in autumn make it dangerous to drink. This is particularly the effect of the leaves of the iron-wood. Some savages in the forest make use of the juice of noxious plants for the purpose of poisoning their arrows.’

Agriculture and Fisheries.—The Tonquinese government, aware of the vast importance of agriculture, is actuated by the desire of rendering the occupation honourable and advantageous. The sovereign, like the Emperor of China, observes the annual custom of ploughing a field in the presence of an assembled multitude, who deposit on the favoured ground some of the soil of every province in his empire; under the belief that fertility emanates from the labour of the sovereign, and is communicated, by a kind of sympathy, to the kindred element at any distance. Notwithstanding this imperial patronage, agriculture is at a very low ebb among the inhabitants of Tonquin. Their harrows are of wood, of the same shape as in Europe; their ploughs are lighter; they make no use of manure; and they cultivate the soil to very little depth. The management of plants and trees is rather better understood, and considerable knowledge is discovered in recovering the trees from injuries which would otherwise bring them to decay. Taken, however, in a comprehensive view, the productive powers of the rich and extensive territory of Tonquin are as yet very inadequately called forth; and a population, greater by many millions than the present, might be easily supported from its soil. The waters also afford a rich supply of food, and excite the industry of the fisherman on the coast, the rivers, and inland lakes. In the maritime provinces, it is computed that the number of fishermen is equal to that of husbandmen; and in this respect, as in the management of trees, the Tonquinese are farther advanced than we might imagine from their general rudeness and ignorance. They have marked with attention the changes produced in the situation of fish by the seasons, the weather, the

the time of the day or night, as well as by local position; and they are indefatigable in turning all this knowledge to account in their various methods of catching them.

‘No where,’ says the author, ‘is the management of nets and lines better understood. One of the modes of nocturnal fishing is to frighten the fish by fires carried along the surface of the water, and to attract them into boats by a painted board, sloping downwards, on which they leap in terror and fall into the vessel. Sprats are caught in quantities, by sinking a bed of large and tough tree-leaves, and pulling it up after a multitude of these small fish have settled on it. Or when a fish, which from his size may be called the whale of the Tonquinese seas, has discovered and begun to devour a bank of sprats, the spouting of the water from the sides of his mouth is a signal to the fishermen, that they are in time to make a rich capture from among those whom their voracious pursuer has not yet destroyed. This large animal is not dangerous to fishermen, and is revered by the Tonquinese as a kind of divinity. One of the most singular fish in these seas is a kind of lobster, of a light grey colour, having inside a black liquid, which he throws on the small fish and obscures their sight; after which he finds it easy to push or drag them with his fins into shallow water, where, in a kind of bed formed by rocks which admit the sea only at high water, thousands of small fish are often found. The discovery of one of these nests affords a rich prize to the fishermen.—Another of the singularities of Tonquin fishing is found to take place on the muddy levels at the side of the great river, where the soil is too loose to tread with the feet, and too deficient in water to admit the smallest boat. The Tonquinese, placing himself in a low seat fixed to a plank, and crossing one leg under him, uses the other as an oar, plunging it into the mud, and pushing himself forwards with a rapidity which, strange as it may seem, surpasses (in the case of a practised person) the pace of a stout walker on level ground. After having advanced two to three miles, he fixes reeds firmly in the earth, which entangle the fish at low water. This fishery constitutes the sole occupation of the natives of several villages; and each inhabitant has his particular lot of ground, separated from the others by public authority.’

Dextrous, however, as the Tonquinese approve themselves in fishing, they are miserably deficient in seamanship. Although their coast is so extensive, and many hundred thousand of them derive their subsistence from a sea-life, their method of navigation still bespeaks the infancy of the art. In the exercise of rowing, however, they are persevering; and they beguile the tediousness of labour, like the Greeks, with a boat-song, in cadence with the stroke of the oar. Resembling other natives of warm climates, they are excellent swimmers; and they venture out into the open sea for several leagues in a raft, which, when they happen to be driven off, they find little difficulty in regaining. It is said that, some
centuries

centuries ago, the navigation of this empire, as well as of other eastern regions, was more extensive than it is at present, but gradually decreased after the establishment of Europeans in the East, and their indiscriminate capture of all Asiatic vessels. Even in its best days, however, it must have been extremely imperfect, the Cochin-Chinese being incapable of taking a degree of latitude, unacquainted with the use of the compass, and afraid of going out of sight of land.

Arts, Manufactures, and Trade.—In regard to progress in the arts, the Tonquinese are still less advanced than several of their Asiatic neighbours. They are ignorant of the method of applying the elements to purposes which appear the most simple to Europeans, being unapprized of the effects of wind-mills, ovens, fire-engines, &c. They are not, however, unsuccessful in imitations, and they work to good purpose on a model. Their tools are extremely deficient; and those among our readers, who are aware how greatly the progress of society is quickened by the division of labour, will consider it as an additional proof of the backwardness of the Tonquinese, that every thing connected with the food and maintenance of a family is done at home, to the exclusion even of baking as a separate profession. To make sails, they have recourse to tree-leaves; which, though extremely different from leaves in our northern latitudes, are yet altogether unfit to resist tempestuous weather. Paper is made of the bark of trees; and instead of pens, they use pencils of the finest hair. Fire-arms they import from Europe, the smelting and manufacture of metals being in a very imperfect state among them.

In building, they think it is necessary to mix molasses with their lime; in tanning, they are equally inexpert; but it happens singularly enough that they have little to do in that way, the skins of animals being generally boiled and eaten with the carcase. The labours in which they are most successful are carpenter's-work on the part of the men, and the manufacture of cotton-cloth by the women. Spinning machines, indeed, are wholly unknown; and a spindle with a single roller is their only instrument for making the thread. The slowness of the operation does not, however, prevent excellence of quality in the manufactured article, and some sorts of cotton in Tonquin are accounted superior in fineness and in beauty to silk. Yet, with all this attention to quality in the cloth, they are wholly ignorant of the art of printing it. Their silks, also, are noted for beauty and durability: but they are all smooth, and contain no flowers of a different colour from that of the stuff. They are strangers to the use of stockings; and the manufacture of linen, of sail cloth, of clocks and watches, and the use of soap, are all unknown to them. The progress of manufacture is greatly checked by the tyrannical interference of government, who are accustomed to put good workmen in requisition on very inadequate wages.—Whatever has been said of

the progress of the arts must be understood as having no reference to Tsiampa, the inhabitants of which are savage, and strangers to all kinds of industry.'

The state of the fine arts, in a country like Tonquin, deserves attention only as indicative of the progress of society. In their music, loudness of sound appears to be the great object; and their instruments are so defective that their violin has only a single string. It is not likely that they should be farther advanced in the eloquence either of the bar or the pulpit, since they have no professional pleading at the former, and in their temples the duty of the priest consists more in praying than in preaching. In painting they are very patient, and, as far as the delineation of a particular object, are exact: but their ignorance of shade and perspective is fatal to success in all combinations.

' Their dancing is singular, and consists more in motions of the arms than of the legs or feet. To keep the head steady and nearly immovable is deemed a great point; and one of their feats is to carry on the head throughout the dance a lighted lamp, in a vase full of oil, without spilling it. The exercise of dancing among the Tonquinese is like the teaching of it among us; it forms a separate occupation, and is practised not for pleasure but for show.

' In regard to architecture, the civil wars having caused the destruction of the royal palaces, the only edifices worth notice are the pagodas. Those of Tonquin are superior in size and in taste to those of Cochin-China, but in both countries they are constructed principally of wood. Private houses cannot by law be built of stone, nor have more than one floor. Of the backward state of architecture, an idea may be formed by the nature of their bridges; which are of wood, supported by large banks, and often in such a condition that a passenger judges it advisable to dismount; while the elephants are regularly obliged to make their way through the water.'

The traffic among the inhabitants of Tonquin is conducted on a different footing from that of Europe. Instead of that division of labour between the inhabitants of town and country, which prevails throughout the latter, the industry of the Tonquinese is concentrated in their villages. It is in these that the farmers, the fishermen, and the artisans reside; while the towns, being inhabited only by the rich and the Mandarins, are scenes of consumption instead of productive industry. In general, the towns derive their supplies from the villages in the neighbourhood. Rice, fish, and fruit, in the way of provision, — cotton and silk, as articles of manufacture, — and elephants, buffaloes, hogs, and cattle, — form the principal articles of merchandise in their respective classes. The range, however, of these transactions must be greatly narrowed by the want of posts, and the consequent necessity of dispatching,

ing, on every occasion, a special messenger. — The money of the Tonquinese empire consists in gold, silver, and brass, the latter forming the ordinary currency, while the precious metals are exchanged only in bars. Treasure-trove might form no inconsiderable branch of public revenue in this country, concealment of money being often practised to avoid the danger arising from civil wars, or from the rapacity of men in power; and the place of deposit being unknown, even to the nearest relations of the deceased. Similar caution is deemed necessary in preventing the notoriety of lending money, the capitalists being very desirous of hiding the extent of their capital.

During the 17th century, the ports of Tonquin were open to the principal nations of Europe trading in these seas; namely, the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French: but all have been successively excluded; — the Portuguese, on a charge of interfering in the wars of the empire; — the Dutch, for exciting insurrection; — the English, for resisting, sword in hand, the payment of the duties; — while the French commerce has died a natural death. China is the quarter from which importation chiefly takes place: but fire-arms can be advantageously supplied by Europe only; and the demand for them, particularly on the part of the Tonquinese government, is considerable.

Mode of living. — The following extract, collected from different passages, conveys an idea of the Tonquinese management in respect to the important requisites of food, clothing, and lodging.

• The bad and unhealthy quality of the water has induced the inhabitants, in many places, to adopt the plan of boiling it, and of drinking it very warm. Leaves of green tea or of other shrubs are generally infused in it, which give it a dark colour and a heady quality. Water of this kind is kept in readiness in the inns for the use of travellers. — A Tonquinese feast is prepared to please the eye as well as the palate; the dishes being so composed and arranged as to present a contrast of colours, the effect of which is heightened by the beauty of the porcelain; and the desserts are rendered very elegant by the richness of the fruits, and the excellence of the confectionary. The food is cut into very small pieces, and taken up with small sticks of rose or of sandal wood, which stand in lieu of our knives, forks, and spoons. Rice, being in a liquid state, is served up in cups; other things are brought on the table in salvers, which supply the place of plates. During the repast, a large fan is kept in motion, for the purpose of refreshing the air, and keeping off the flies. A labouring man may be supported by the consumption of what would fill five or six of our coffee-cups, an expence of only a half-penny per day; while a buffalo costs only a guinea, and a hog less than the half

nalf of that sum. Provisions being thus cheap, it will naturally be inferred that, in so mild a climate, the expence of clothing will also be moderate. Indeed, clothing is in this country prescribed rather by a regard to decency than by the state of the weather. Children remain naked till the age of seven; and the males of the lower orders, when at home, wear only a girdle round their middle. Married women, when at work, uncover the neck and part of the bosom: but the unmarried, or those who are married but have no children, keep covered. On going out of doors, women throw a cloak around them; both sexes wear turbans, and neither have shoes nor stockings; their mode of dress has been the same for ages, and appears liable to no change.

'In a climate in which cold is so little known, the object in a dwelling is to ward off the rain and the intensity of the sun's rays. The dampness of the soil makes it necessary to raise a platform several feet above the ordinary level, as a foundation for the house; and a small space of platform, in addition to the limits of the building, makes a kind of terrace all around. The body of the building consists of columns supporting the roof; the space between the pillars being filled up with mud or clay in the houses of the lower orders, and in those of a better class with wood. Such are the walls; the summit of the roof rests on pillars placed in the inside of the house; and instead of windows, they have cloth or bamboo-mats, sufficiently thin to admit the passage of the light. Slender rafters, covered over with large leaves, form the roof; and the partitions are of wood whitened over with chalk. A house consists of three parts; the dwelling, the offices, and the cattle-stall. It must not be of a square form, because that shape is confined to the imperial palaces; nor must it exceed a single floor, unless the proprietor be a man of rank. Only the temples and houses of the great may be built of brick; which, however, is of bad quality, being merely dried in the sun. Wood is the great material employed in building; and it is both cheap and well fitted by its flexibility to bear the violence of the wind. Bamboos are almost universally used; and though hollow and spungy, they grow progressively harder and stronger. In the inland part of the country, the houses are in general at some distance from each other, and have a pond and garden: but in the vicinity of the sea they have neither, the occupants passing their time in a great measure on the water. In the large towns, the streets are wide and straight; one-half of the width being paved for the accommodation of foot-passengers, while the other half is left unpaved, and appropriated to the passage of cattle and goods. The uniformity in the height of the houses of the middling and lower classes has rather a pleasing effect in a street.'

[To be continued in the Review for February.]

ART. IX. *Voyage en Allemagne et en Suède, &c. ; i. e. Travels in Germany and Sweden, containing Observations on Natural Objects, Institutions, Arts, and Manners ; Historical Notices respecting Monuments and remarkable Places, Anecdotes of Illustrious Men, and a View of the last Revolution in Sweden.* By J. P. CATTEAU, Author of the View of Denmark. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by Dulau, and De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s.

IT is not a very common complaint, with which we have to begin our review of M. CATTEAU's work, that the author has said too little of himself. We are not informed with what immediate object, nor in what manner and in what society, he visited the countries through which we are to accompany him ; and he abstains so completely from mentioning any circumstance concerning himself only, that we never become familiar with our guide, and are deprived of the pleasure which we feel when we are interested in the person of the narrator as well as in the subject of his narrative. In general, he communicates rather the conclusions which he has drawn from his observations, than the observations themselves ; his volumes resemble a series of views and landscapes, rather than a moving scene ; and though they convey much information, they do not possess the attractions which works of this kind are capable of displaying. From the whole arrangement of the book, we are led to suppose that it has been composed from *memoranda* made respecting the places which the author visited, but not from a regular journal ; and that the few occurrences which are interspersed have been supplied only from memory. The narrative frequently passes abruptly from one place to another at a considerable distance, and seldom contains remarks on individuals or single objects. Perhaps the writer consulted his own talents in the choice of this arrangement, since he is not successful when he attempts to be animated or sentimental in his descriptions. He is, however, generally instructive, and gives proofs of a sound and unbiassed judgment, as well as of extensive information. His observations shew that he is a man of science, and intimately acquainted with the languages and the literature of both the countries through which he travelled ; and we consider it as a proof of his desire of being impartial, that he has avoided all comments on the political situation of Germany, and on the late events, which supply so inviting a subject of contemplation to a Frenchman. He has, indeed, carried this caution so far, that, one or two trifling occasions excepted, the important changes which the late convulsions have produced do not even form a part of the historical sketches in which this traveller seems to delight, and which are in some instances spun out to too great a length.

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M. CATTEAU's tour in Germany extends over more than one-half of that country. He embarked (we are left to guess that it was in the year 1807,) at Copenhagen for Holstein; passed through Hamburg and Bremen to the Rhine; and, continuing his route along the beautiful banks of that river, he visited the countries of Baden and Westphalia: then turning towards the Danube, he proceeded as far as Ratisbon, and thence returned through Heidelberg and Franckfort to Upper Saxony, where he embarked for Sweden. He belongs to the class of contented and good-natured travellers, for no where do bad roads, or indifferent horses and imposing postillions, or disobliging landlords, seem to have disposed him to find fault, and to look on the dark side of men or things. His judgment always inclines to the favourable, and prefers dwelling on that which deserves praise to the task of looking for defects. It is, however, singular that he nowhere notices any of the melancholy effects of the war, either on the morals or on the comforts of the people. In one instance, only, we think that he has become unjust by not qualifying a reproach, which, although it contains much truth, is far too severe because it is too general.

Travellers have often remarked that in few cities had the mercantile spirit so completely taken possession of the minds of the inhabitants, and produced a love of splendour without pure generosity, and a desire for the reputation of patronizing the arts and sciences without true esteem for them, as in Hamburg. The present author seems to be of the same opinion; and speaking of the merchants of that city, he observes:

"Most of them have country-houses within the territory of Hamburg or in Holstein, whither they repair with their families, to rest from the labours and divest themselves of the cares of the counting-house. It might be expected that, leaving behind the gravity and reserve which usually accompany them, they would here open their minds to contentment and the enjoyment of life: but gloom and restlessness still pursue them even into rural retirement. Nature in vain smiles around them, and endeavours to divert their thoughts. On the green turf, among trees and flowers, they are planning new schemes for the increase of their treasures, and calculate the chances in which they are interested. I read on their brows,

"Que la fortune vend ce qu'on croit qu'elle donne."

To this picture, which we consider as rather too highly coloured, the following description of the low-lands on the banks of the Elbe, and their inhabitants, forms a pleasing contrast:

“We

We meet here with few towns, but a great number of villages and farms. Most of the former are embellished by several avenues of elms, or of willows, and contentment and prosperity are every where visible. The condition of the husbandman is the most esteemed and the most profitable; no feudal servitude has ever oppressed him, for the inhabitants have always strenuously opposed its introduction, and have made the greatest sacrifices to preserve their personal freedom and the independent possession of their property. Their character is distinguished by a mixture of frankness with gravity, of honesty with roughness, of reserve with hospitality, of simplicity with luxury, and of good natured credulity with information. Attachment to their native soil, and to the habits and customs of their ancestors, is one of their leading traits. They have little communication with the farmers of the neighbouring districts, and, enjoying more liberty, they regard themselves as superior to them.—Fond of retirement and of their domestic circles, they have a taste for reading; and we may find in their houses several good moral and historical works, but no poems or novels. The imagination has little sway over them; reason and judgment are their guides in the choice of their books.

A visit to Hanover naturally recalls to the mind of a continental lover of science the memory of *Leibnitz*; to whom M. CATTEAU pays a tribute of homage, which will far surpass the deserts of that philosopher in the eyes of those who consider it as settled, that *Leibnitz* stole from *Newton* that which he pretended to have discovered. The French traveller—we do not pretend to say whether from want of better information, or in spite of sufficient evidence to the contrary,—maintains that Europe has decided so far in favour of *Leibnitz* as to allow him a share in the merit of his discoveries with the immortal English philosopher.—We heartily unite with the author in wishing that only such contests and rivalships might exist between nations.

In the greater part of Westphalia, nature offers little to the traveller that can attract his attention, or the description of which could amuse his readers; and M. CATTEAU seems to have found as little that was deserving his notice in the inhabitants: but he dwells on the scenes that have rendered the town of Osnaburgh remarkable in history, and relates the following anecdote concerning the descendants of the great Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden:

‘During the thirty years’ war, Count *Gustave-Gustavsson Vasa-burg*, a natural son of Gustavus Adolphus by Margaret Cabeliau, daughter of a Dutch merchant established at Gottenburg, (and under whose direction the first commercial companies were established in Sweden,) took up his residence at Osnaburgh, and was long considered as the presumptive sovereign of the bishopric, which was to be secularized in his favour:—but, not being sufficiently supported

in his wishes either by Sweden or by France, his expectations were disappointed. He received, however, a compensation of eighty thousand dollars, and some estates in the duchy of Bremen. During the reign of Christina, he in vain solicited repeatedly an employment in Sweden; the Queen assigned his want of discretion as the cause of her refusal, and applied to him the words of the historian :

"Res magna sustineri non possunt ab eo, cui tacere grave est."

His estates in Westphalia became, therefore, his principal residence; and he married a Princess of the house of Wied, by whom he had a son, whose numerous progeny were dispersed in all parts of Europe. That branch of the family which remained in Westphalia gradually sunk to a state bordering on indigence, and lived in the utmost obscurity. The family was even considered as extinct when, in the year 1776, Count Munster discovered, in a very humble retreat, Henrietta Polyxena, great grand-daughter of the great Gustavus, then nearly eighty years old, and quite destitute. The Count went to Stockholm, and informed Gustavus III. of the existence of this last descendant of his illustrious predecessor; and the King wrote without delay a letter to Henrietta Polyxena, in which he addressed her as his cousin, remitted to her a considerable sum of money, and granted her a pension for the remainder of her life. — She enjoyed this return of prosperity but a very short time, for she died in a few months.

Pappenburg may be reckoned among those places which, on account of the usual channels of trade being shut, have obtained peculiar and temporary importance, and have acquired an unexpected degree of opulence. Its flag, and its flag almost alone, being still considered as neutral, has been seen flying in all the European seas. This town, which now consists of about four hundred houses and three thousand inhabitants, was founded in the last century under the auspices and instructions of a Baron *Landsberg Veelen*, in the midst of marshes, which he caused to be drained and turned into useful pastures.

At Ratisbon, the traveller's attention was attracted by an appropriate monument, not long since erected by the Prince-primate of the Rhenish confederacy, who resides in that city, to the famous astronomer *John Kepler*. It does not stand on the spot in which the remains of the astronomer are deposited, because this circumstance could not be ascertained, the public burying ground having been completely devastated during the thirty years' war, but in a garden adjoining the city. In the year 1774, the Empress Catharine purchased *Kepler's* manuscripts at Frankfort, and presented them to the Academy of Petersburg: but we have not heard that the design of printing them has been accomplished.

The part of Germany with which M. CATTEAU seems to have been pleased above all others, and of which he speaks in the

the highest terms, is Saxony. Not the scenes of nature, however, but the state of the people, gives the principal interest to a country in the eyes of this traveller; and he seems to have derived greater pleasure from the appearances of regular and well-rewarded industry, than from the luxuriance and beauty which are the spontaneous gifts of nature. In accounting, however, for the superiority in intellectual culture which he discovered in the inhabitants of Saxony, compared with those of almost every other part of Germany, he has omitted the most important circumstance, which has contributed more than all others united to bestow on the population of Saxony an honourable distinction among their countrymen; viz. the attention paid to the schools destined for the middling and lower classes of the people. Saxony has still many exertions to make before she will be able to measure herself with several other countries of Europe, in the productions of art or the perfection of her industry; and many impediments must still be removed, before her inhabitants can arrive at the enjoyments of general prosperity: but probably no country betrays so few persons, particularly among the young, who are altogether ignorant, or unaccustomed to reflection.

On mentioning the fairs of Leipzig, M. CATTEAU adverts to the change which has taken place in Germany in the last two centuries, with regard to the proportion which works published in the Latin tongue bear to those that are written in the language of the country. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, among seven hundred new publications, four hundred were composed in Latin; at the commencement of the eighteenth, 420 out of 600 were in that language; and at the opening of the present century, the proportion was reduced to not quite 200 out of more than two thousand. This proportion is still perhaps greater than can be found in any other country; and it is rather surprising that sufficient motives should yet exist for preferring on so many occasions an antient language to the mother-tongue. On more minute examination, however, it will appear that a great (perhaps the greater) part of those Latin publications belong to the class of compositions which the Professors at the Universities, and the masters of endowed schools, are obliged *ex officio* to publish at certain stated periods, under the title of *Programmata*; and in which they are by antient custom confined to the use of the Latin tongue:—or that they are dissertations written for the purpose of obtaining university-honours. The author has devoted several chapters to general remarks on the industry of the Germans, their religious sects; their emigrations, and their foreign establishments: but in none of these does he add much to the information

which is contained in most geographical works. We therefore close our observations on this part of the production with an extract from his description of the island of Rugen. After having minutely described its situation, and stated its extent to be about twelve leagues in length and ten or eleven in breadth, he continues :

‘ The island of Rugen is so fertile that it not only maintains its population, but also exports corn and cattle. Agriculture is practised with much skill, and the greatest attention is paid to every thing that can facilitate or render more productive the labours of the husbandman.—No ground is left waste, and even the roads are in some places so narrow that scarcely a single carriage can find room. Between the modest dwellings of the farmers are seen some castles, belonging to the nobles, who have possessions in the island, and of whom many are Swedes. Besides the produce of the soil, the inhabitants are richly endowed with the gifts of the sea. The fishery employs them, particularly towards the season when the herrings arrive ; and as soon as this occupation has commenced, it is not interrupted until it ceases to be productive. The fishermen work even on Sundays ; and in order to save them the time which they would spend in going to the parish-church, sermons are preached on the shore, either in the open air or in large tents or huts. The population of the island amounts to 30,000, the greatest number of whom live in the villages. It contains but two towns, Bergen and Gartz ; the former including about fifteen hundred, and the latter eight or nine hundred inhabitants. Bergen is situated on an eminence, by the side of which is a higher hill, whence a view of the whole island may be obtained, as also of a part of Pomerania, and several arms of the Baltic. A strong castle once crowned its summit, but nothing more of it remains than ruins covered with brambles. The low German dialect prevails in the island, mixed with some Swedish and Danish words. The customs and manners of the inhabitants likewise resemble those of the North of Germany, except in the most remote districts, where an antique simplicity still exists. The same simplicity is also striking in the inhabitants of the small islands which surround Rugen : but it is every where accompanied by that ease and independence which characterize all islanders. Rugen has no safe port, and the many shallows near its coast occasion numerous shipwrecks : but notwithstanding these inconveniences, the navigation is extensive, and profitable to the islanders ; and those unfortunate strangers, who are thrown by shipwreck on their shore, find a hospitable reception and disinterested assistance.’

The travels through Sweden possess the same general character, which we have assigned to the preceding part of the work : but the author is perhaps still better acquainted with that kingdom than with Germany ; and his *View of Sweden**, which appeared more than twenty years ago, has been noticed

* See M. Rev. Vol. ii. N. S. p. 574. *Appendix*.

with commendation by natives of that state. As he mentions in that work that he had then resided several years in Sweden, he is not liable to the reproach of a hasty observer.

Sweden is one of those countries of which most travellers, who leave home fully prepared to experience some disappointments and to submit to some inconveniences and deprivations; find reason to speak favourably. They meet with something in the character of the natives which invites and gratifies. The nobles are indeed very intriguing, and have always shewn themselves extremely jealous of their aristocratic rights and privileges: but they have never been able to subjugate the spirit of the people, nor to obtain the full exercise of feudal rights.

‘The peasants of Sweden,’ says the writer, ‘have always enjoyed an advantageous existence, and the yoke of servitude has never weighed them down. They lead a more laborious life than the inhabitants of the south of Europe, but honourable prerogatives have contributed to support their courage. Some of them farm the lands of the crown for a term of years, others cultivate the estates of the great land-holders: but the most respectable class consists of those who have acquired an hereditary right over the land which they occupy: these form one of the estates of the kingdom, and are by the constitution admitted to the deliberations on the welfare of the nation. They live generally in easy circumstances; and they acquire, by frequenting the provincial schools and by reading, a considerable degree of information, without departing from the customs and manners which belong to their situation.

‘The Swedes are a robust and well-made race of men, capable of bearing great fatigue. In their disposition, they are mild and hospitable, and the rigour of the law is rarely required to punish great crimes. They allow, however, that they are strongly inclined to jealousy and revenge, and that more than once that propensity has been the cause of political convulsions. They enjoy so sparingly the comforts of easy intercourse with each other, that they are grave and serious; but this retired mode of life also produces in them the habit of reflection, though it deprives them of the means of giving expansion and correctness to their ideas. They manifest a great inclination to see foreign countries, but their attachment to their own never leaves them; and even abroad they are fond of preserving their national customs, and almost universally return home. The *maladie du pays* is often in them as irresistible as among the Swiss; because, like the latter, they inhabit a soil, the characteristic forms and appearances of which early give rise to dispositions which no time nor change of scene can completely destroy. In some districts, the simplicity of the primitive ages still reigns; hospitality is practised in its most engaging form; and the traveller, possessed of a feeling mind, experiences the highest enjoyment. From the remotest ages, their national rural festivities have been preserved throughout the country; and even yet no Swede speaks with indifference of the first of May or

of Midsummer-day. In the night preceding the first of May, large fires are kindled in the fields, which seem to be emblematical of the beneficent warmth which nature is about to diffuse. The people assemble around them, and enjoy their innocent mirth. The day itself is dedicated to social feasting; in order, as they express it, to "strengthen their bones."—On midsummer eve, the youth of both sexes assist in planting before the houses trees which are deprived of their foliage, but are decorated with garlands of flowers and other ornaments. Round these trees they dance till morning approaches; when, after a few hours of rest, they repair to the church, which is adorned with green boughs; and in the afternoon the amusements are resumed, and continued till late in the night.

The latter custom, and the same mode of rejoicing, are very common in a great part of the continent. Almost throughout Germany it is practised; not on the same day in all places, but in each village on the day of the *wake*, or the anniversary of the erection of its parish-church. Those who have observed the salutary influence of these local diversions, particularly on the preservation of attachment to certain places and communities, will not condemn them because they often become noisy and even riotous; nor sneer at the connection of religious rites and devotion with the loud expression of village joy. It is only in great towns, or in the neighbourhood of great towns, that these scenes become really dangerous to the morals of the people.

The climate of Sweden is well known to be favourable to longevity; though, united with other circumstances, it has hitherto baffled the endeavours of the government to promote the increase of the population of the country, which at the commencement of the present century amounted to no more than three millions, on a surface of above 20,000 square leagues. The bills of mortality, published at Stockholm, have furnished, within the space of ten years, 212 instances of males and 328 of females reaching the age of 100 to 105; thirty-one of males and thirty-six of females attaining the age of 106 to 110; twenty-two of men and nineteen of women who died between the age of 111 and 120; and one man of 122 and one woman of 127 years.

M. CATTEAU is peculiarly brief in his account of the different provinces of Sweden, and observes a total silence respecting the internal regulations and government of the country. He wishes to impress his readers with a favourable idea of the services to literature which the Swedish universities have performed, and therefore devotes two chapters to the memory of several learned Swedes, whose names he apprehends are not so generally known as they deserve to be; particularly those of *Samuel Klingenshiern*, professor of mathematics at Upsal; *Peter Fargentin*, astronomer at the Royal Observatory at Stockholm;

and the two poets, *Dalín* and *Kulgren*. The last of these was drawn from obscurity and indigence by Gustavus III., who employed him to finish the dramatic pieces of which he himself had sketched the outlines, and by which he wished to animate and cherish the patriotism of his subjects.

Nearly the whole of the author's third volume is devoted to what he himself calls a Picture or View of the last Revolution in Sweden; an event which has been regarded by the rest of Europe, and it appears also by the great mass of the population in Sweden, with surprising indifference. It has by many been considered as nothing more than one of the numerous instances of successful intrigue on the part of the French government, and has thus failed as yet to furnish that important lesson which it is calculated to afford.—In our time, indeed, the sudden changes in the fate of kings and princes have ceased to be striking, and to force on us by their novelty the proper estimate of human greatness. M. CATTEAU's narrative, it may be supposed, hints at no secret influence of a foreign power: but it details with great clearness and moderation the facts themselves, and the circumstances which, at least apparently, led to the abdication of Gustavus IV. Those, who had not before heard of the probability of French interference, and were acquainted with the former periods of Swedish history, would certainly not suppose, from a perusal of these pages, that a difficulty, worthy of the introduction of treachery excited by bribery, was existing, to account for the conduct of the Swedish nobles on that occasion; or for the indifference with which the people beheld it. The unshaken firmness with which the King persevered in carrying on the war against France and her allies, — notwithstanding the unfavourable turn which Swedish affairs had already taken, the loss of Pomerania, and the improbability of the interference of Sweden becoming of material service to the cause which she had espoused, — has appeared an unaccountable trait in that Prince's character. Perhaps it is a proof that even in Sweden it was so considered, that conjecture has had recourse to circumstances such as the following to solve the enigma: a book, written by a M. Jung, in Germany, better known by the name of *Stillling*, — which, as the present author states, is a commentary on the Apocalypse, and full of prophecies and allusions to the present times, — was translated into Swedish, and became a favourite at court, where many pretended to possess the key to it. 'A mind,' adds the traveller, without entering farther into detail, 'long since inclined to religious flights, here found an opportunity of combining them with objects that not less powerfully engaged it.' We know that most of M. Jung's numerous publications have a strong tendency to cherish

fanaticism, and have in several instances caused great mischief but we should scarcely have assigned to them any place among the secret springs that have influenced the fate of nations. — The second circumstance, which M. CATTEAU notices, is the solemnity with which the statue of Gustavus III., erected in memory of the victories gained by him in Finland, was opened to the public of Stockholm at the time when his son was engaged in the war with France. Gustavus IV. himself presided at the ceremony; and the governor of the city pronounced an address, in which he enumerated the brave deeds of the great princes of Sweden, not without alluding to the reign of him who by that statue expressed his admiration of the conduct of his father. ‘The triumphal pomp, and the marks of public joy given on that occasion,’ says the author, ‘produced a second time a peculiar enthusiasm in the King’s mind, at a period when every thing was seized to cherish and to justify preconceived hopes.’

The distress which the united effects of the war and of a severe winter had produced in 1808-9, in the greater part of Sweden, scarcely allows of exaggeration in the description; and M. CATTEAU’s picture of the state of the kingdom, and of Stockholm in particular, is not drawn in such strong colours as have been used by some travellers from England who visited Sweden about that disastrous period. Several men of spirit, it is here said, ‘represented to the monarch the deplorable state of the country, and the necessity of concluding a peace: but their remonstrances were unavailing against his unshaken firmness, supported by the hope that sooner or later the necessary assistance would arrive.’ New orders for fresh levies were consequently issued, new taxes were about to be imposed, and new loans to be negotiated, when the event took place which led to the King’s abdication, and with the particulars of which we are well acquainted. It is to the credit of the present traveller, that he uses the utmost delicacy in speaking of the unfortunate monarch, to whom even his enemies do not venture to impute criminal intentions. The subsequent conduct of the Swedes affords just reason for suspecting the purity of their patriotism: but we cannot help thinking that they would never have quietly acceded to the proposals, by accepting which they have subjected themselves to a foreigner, had not the misfortunes of the last reign prepared their minds for such a step; and if it should be true that honesty of principle, under the sway of an unfortunate delusion in the person of their King, has reduced that nation to their present situation, it is difficult to decide whether the prince or the people be more deserving of our pity. — M. CATTEAU’s narrative brings the history

history of the Revolution down to the election of the Prince of Augustenburg as Prince-Royal of Sweden, and to the conclusion of a peace with France and Russia. He has likewise added a genealogical table of all the dynasties which have reigned over Sweden, from the fabulous days of Odin to the present times ; and of which he enumerates twelve.

With the opportunities which this author seems to have possessed for collecting information, he might undoubtedly have furnished a more instructive and entertaining work than he has here presented to us : but, if he cannot claim the merit of having enriched the minds of his readers by many new observations or ingenious remarks, they will not refuse their gratitude for the assistance which he has afforded them in forming general notions of the people, among whom he has resided. No wit enlivens his pages, nor do stale anecdotes and manifestations of conceit render them tedious.

ART. X. *Voyages du Chevalier Chardin, &c. ; i. e. The Travels of Sir John Chardin in Persia and other Parts of the East, enriched with a great number of beautiful Copper-plates, representing the Antiquities and remarkable Objects of those Countries. A new Edition, carefully compared with the three original Editions, and augmented by an Account of Persia, from the most remote Period to the present Day, with Notes, &c. By L. LANGLÈS, Member of the Institute, one of the Keepers of the Imperial Library, &c. &c. 10 Vols. 8vo. With a large Imperial Folio Atlas, containing 81 Plates. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12l. 12s. sewed,*

THE French editor terms this re-print of the travels of Sir John Chardin a *humble* edition, unworthy of being considered as an adequate monument to the fame of the writer : but, from the *English* price of this work, our readers will be induced to suppose that it is a publication sufficiently splendid to satisfy the vanity of any *living* or the ghost of any *dead* author. As the travels of Chardin are become scarce, and he has been generally regarded as a fair reporter of the facts and circumstances which occurred to his observation, we are persuaded that the literary world, on both sides of the channel, will feel themselves much obliged to M. LANGLÈS for the trouble which he has here taken ; and we should be neither surprised nor sorry if our booksellers should avail themselves of this edition, to exhibit Sir John in a new English dress : in which case the plates may be given on a smaller scale, to accommodate the price to the purses of a large class of the purchasers of books. Should this event happen, we shall have
another

another opportunity of adverting to the narrative here contained, which was published before the commencement of our Review, and of course was never noticed in any of our volumes: but we must not altogether wait for this contingency, and shall in the present article communicate such notices as the present editor has afforded us, with respect to the life and the writings of this Eastern traveller.

We find that three original and authentic editions of *Sir John's Travels* have been published; the first by himself in London, 1686, in one volume folio, embellished with 18 plates, but not containing his *Travels from Paris to Ispahan*. Twenty-five years afterward, or in 1711, the whole text was published complete at Amsterdam, in two editions, (though in fact they may be regarded as the same,) one in three volumes quarto, and the other in ten volumes duodecimo, with 79 plates. The same press-matter and the same engraved copper served for both: but considerations of a political and interested nature determined the bookseller, *Delorme*, who had been shut up in the Bastille, to suppress certain anecdotes and reflections, which were likely to prevent the circulation of the work in Roman Catholic countries. In 1735 some Dutch booksellers, having obtained the MSS. and copper-plates which belonged to *Chardin*, who died in 1713, published a new edition of these Travels, in four volumes quarto, inserting the passages omitted in the edition of 1711. These restitutions are numerous, and may be recognized in the pages before us by being placed between brackets. *M. LANGLÈS* complains of the multitude of typographical errors and omissions of words and phrases which disfigured that edition, and which he attributes to its having been assigned to the care of a very inexperienced corrector of the press: but, notwithstanding its defects, it is much sought by the curious in books, and was become so very scarce that a copy was lately sold at a public auction for 420 francs, or upwards of 16l. sterling. This circumstance sufficiently indicated the necessity of a re-publication; and, as none of these editions were printed in France, though *Chardin* was a native of that country, *M. LANGLÈS* thought that it was high time for the French literati to supply such a want of respect to so celebrated a countryman, and we must admit that he has performed the task in a manner that is truly creditable to himself. Speaking of the present work, he says:

‘ I shall content myself with asserting that it has been very carefully compared with the three editions above mentioned, and that this collation has given a text more exact and complete than that of the edition of 1735. I more particularly insist on the authenticity of this text, because I have not allowed myself to make the smallest alteration;

alteration : I have even respected the errors and the incorrectness of the traveller himself. The rectification of words which were wrongly spelt I have placed between parentheses ; while in notes at the bottom of the pages, signed L—, will be found the corrections and elucidations which were judged necessary. These notes, collected from Latin, Greek, Arabian, Indian, and Persian writers, from hints which have been communicated by modern travellers, and by Persians resident at Paris, are always accompanied by references. To the researches into the religion, civil and natural history, language, and antiquities, of Persia, are subjoined short remarks on the causes of the decline and on the actual state of those countries and cities, which were so flourishing in the time of *Chardin*.'

This brief extract will serve to shew how anxious M. LANGLÈS has been to render his edition worthy of the public patronage. His care has also been extended to the plates ; and at the end of the work will be found not only two ample tables of contents, one for the text and the other for the notes, but also *A chronological notice of Persia*, which will be useful in the perusal of these volumes. What modern editor could have been more assiduous ? The advertisement is dated, *Imperial Library, November 1810*.

To the unsatisfactory memoirs of *Chardin* already supplied, his present biographer does not pretend to make additions of importance : but he would console the reader for the scantiness of his details by this general reflection, that a traveller who has spent the best part of his days in distant countries, and who owes his celebrity to his published descriptions of them, must, in these narratives, have presented the most interesting passages of his life. All the merit which M. LANGLÈS assumes is on the score of accuracy respecting dates, and some trifling facts ; it is, however, but fair to give him a little more credit than he assumes. He informs us that the *Notice* by P. Nicéron, in his *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des hommes illustres*, is very faulty and incorrect ; and had he seen our biographical works, he would have been equally dissatisfied with them ; but the sketch before us, though occupying scarcely seven pages, is much more complete than any that we have in English. It states that *John Chardin* was born at Paris, 26th November 1643 ; his father was a jeweller and a Protestant ; and this last circumstance had a powerful influence over the fortune of the traveller. Scarcely had he reached his 22d year (1664) when, to serve the commercial views of his father, he made his first journey to the East Indies, whither he went by land, crossing Persia, and embarking at Hormouz. His stay at Surat was not long, since we find that in the year following he returned to Persia, and fixed his residence there for six years. This period was occupied partly in commercial speculations,

lations, and partly in profound and useful researches. His title of *Merchant to the King of Persia* afforded him numerous advantages, of which he made good use; and in order to enable him to converse with those with whom he had an immediate communication, he applied himself to the study of the Persian language. He was thus enabled to read not only men but books, and was led to the examination of the history and antiquities of Persia. It appears that he wrote several learned works, the titles of which are given in his prefaces, but which were never published; whether these were among the Chardin MSS., to which Mr. Harmer refers in his *Observations on divers Passages of Scripture*, (see M. R. Vol. liv. p. 353.) we cannot now determine: but it is most probable that these were the *Notes on the Bible*, which Chardin mentions in his preface as prepared for the press. M. LANGLÈS, however, would incline us to set no very high value on these inedited MSS.; and, indeed, he depreciates the general merit of Chardin's literary disquisitions, by remarking that he was better acquainted with the spoken than with the written language of Persia; and that he had not studied the Arabic, which is indispensable to the knowledge of books written in the modern Persic.

Twice, in the course of his first tour, (in 1666 and 1667) he visited the ruins of Persepolis; and in his second visit, he met, in the midst of these stupendous monuments, Thévenot, the nephew, a traveller of reputation, who was perhaps better acquainted with the Asiatic languages than Chardin: but he had viewed countries only superficially, while on the other hand Chardin had opportunities of observing, studying, and describing with exactness.

While he resided in Persia, he collected materials for the description of Ispahan, and for a general history of Persia, which latter work, the present biographer supposes, was never finished; at least, he says, it has never appeared. From this was detached the *Coronation of Solomon*, partly translated from the Persian, and published at Paris in 1671, during the short period of 15 months which intervened between his arrival in France, and his quitting it to return to Persia; for he found that the religion, in which he had been educated, excluded him from all employment in his native land; and that he was forced to seek his fortune in foreign states, where he could cherish his religious sentiments without persecution, and where the character of a merchant was not disreputable. Having executed the jewellery-work which A'bbas had ordered of him, and the pattern of which this sovereign himself had traced out, Chardin (Aug. 17, 1671,) commenced his second journey to Persia, where he remained longer than in his former travels, or
towards

towards the end of the year 1677, when he quitted it for India, arriving at Surat in the beginning of 1678, and returning to Europe by sea, probably by the Cape of Good Hope.

M. LANGLEÈS adds that 'he is ignorant whether the traveller sailed directly for England;' but he informs us that *Chardin*, alarmed by the frightful storm which was gathering and threatening to burst on the heads of his countrymen of his religious profession, bade an eternal adieu to his ungrateful country, seeking an asylum in London, where he arrived April 14, 1681; that, ten days after his arrival in this capital, he was knighted by Charles II., and on the same day married a lady from Rouen, who had in like manner quitted France in order to be out of the reach of '*the energetic exhortations of priests and dragoons.*'

The words in Italics will be perused with much satisfaction, since they clearly shew that the cruel and insensate persecution of the poor Huguenots is now as much reprobated in France as in England; that the eyes of mankind are open to the disgrace, as well as the cruelty, of endeavouring to convince by fire and faggot; and they see that the mild and divine religion of Jesus is shamefully outraged, when priests call in soldiers to aid them in propagating the faith. We trust that this bloody insanity will never revisit the Christian world; and in order to prevent it, no opportunity should be lost for exciting a detestation of persecution, and inculcating the duty of universal tolerance.

Our books of biography state that Charles II., after having distinguished the traveller by the order of knighthood, made him his jeweller: but they do not inform us that this monarch appointed Sir John to be his plenipotentiary to the States of Holland, and that the English East India Company also nominated him their agent to these States. In the course of his residence in Holland, he published that enlarged edition of his works which we have already mentioned; and, returning soon afterward to London, he died there Jan. 26, 1713, aged 69 years and 2 months.

Of the ten volumes before us, it is sufficient here to add that they are neatly printed; and that our obligations to the editor, for presenting the text of *Chardin* to the public with all possible fidelity, are much increased by the judicious and learned notes which are subjoined at the bottom of the page. To the ample tables of contents are subjoined corrections and additions to the Editor's notes, for the insertion of which he stopped the publication of the work. The large atlas contains many curious plates; but, in point of execution, they are not in the first style of French engraving.

ART.

ART. XI. *Description de l'Egypte, &c.; i.e. A Description of Egypt,* or a Collection of the Observations and Researches which were made in Egypt during the Expedition of the French Army. Published by Order of his Imperial Majesty, Napoleon the Great. Folio. At the Imperial Press. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe, London. First Delivery. (*Livraison.*) Price 84l. ; or on Vellum Paper, with Proof-plates, 150l.

REASONS both of a commercial and a political nature made it impossible for Great Britain to look with indifference on the invasion of Egypt by the French, or to allow them to remain in the quiet possession of it : but a member of the republic of letters, if he were to restrict his regards solely to the interests of science, literature, and the arts, would be induced to regret that they were not permitted to occupy this now degraded though once illustrious region, some time longer. Never before did so large an army, as that of General Bonaparte, move to conquest with a complete corps of artists and scientific men attached to it ; and not even the antiquities and natural productions of Europe have been explored with so much enthusiasm, skill, and effect. While the enemy do justice to our valour, even in the pages before us, — admitting in the preface to this magnificent work that we annihilated their fleet in the battle of the Nile, and destroyed all their schemes by the victories which we obtained over them on shore, — let us not feel any reluctance in confessing that their plan was great ; and that, during the period of their occupation of Egypt, their researches into the antiquities, natural history, and productions of that country, reflect the highest honour on the savans and artists who were employed on this occasion. We are presented with the result of their labours in the truly superb, expensive, and imperial publication ; of which the first part is now before us, but which we can do little more than concisely announce, since it has but just reached our hands. We are, however, resolved to announce it, if it be only to inform our readers that this *literary comet* has appeared in our horizon. It issues from the press under the immediate sanction of the French ruler ; and, large as the price of it is, we are assured that the very few copies, which the laudable enterprise of M. De Boffe has procured for this country, are already sold to our opulent patrons of the arts.

This *premiere livraison*, or first delivery of the work, consists of eight volumes, of different sizes. Two volumes, imperial folio, contain a multitude of beautifully executed plates, representing the monuments of ancient Egypt, modern views of places, subjects of natural history, &c. &c. Of the same size, is given a volume containing an historical preface, and an explanation

explanation of the plates. Connected with these three volumes, but vastly surpassing them in magnitude, is *A Geographical Atlas of Egypt and Syria*, of atlantic form, measuring 4 feet 6 inches by three feet; forming a distinct department of the work; and containing general and topographical plans, views of monuments in their present state,—plans, elevations, and sections of buildings,—architectural details,—bas reliefs,—statues,—ornaments, &c. &c.

To the rich exhibition which is thus offered, are appended four volumes in folio, of the ordinary size; which are replete with illustrative and instructive memoirs on the modern state of Egypt, its natural history, and its antiquities.

The Historical Preface, which is written by *M. Fourier*, contains an amusing fund of introductory matter, at which we can only glance. He enlarges on the favourable geographical situation of Egypt,—sketches its various fortunes and revolutions at different periods,—and, while he adverts to its former elevation in arts, agriculture, and commerce, laments its present depression. We here find an open exposition of the motives and views of the French in the Egyptian expedition; and the military events which distinguished it are fairly recorded, as well as the labours of the corps of literati, who, under the protection of the army, worked assiduously in their department. Care is taken to display at full length the benefits which Egypt was deriving, and would in future have derived more largely, from their institutions and instruction; and lamentations are poured over their expulsion by the English, which at once annihilated all the brilliant prospects that the French had formed.

According to this account, Egypt contains an extent of surface measuring 1,800 square leagues, and has a population of 2,300,000 inhabitants. On the natural productions of the country, it is remarked that, 'independently of wheat, rice, and other grain, and of the fruits of all kinds which it produces in abundance, it might derive still greater advantages from the culture of flax, sugar, and indigo. — Its indigenous plants are few in number: but its rich soil, the temperature of which gradually varies from the sea to the borders of Nubia, may be considered as a vast garden, calculated to receive and to preserve the richest productions of the universe.' It is unequivocally asserted that the French were resolved on the junction of the Red Sea with the Mediterranean by a navigable canal, the practicability of which their engineers had completely ascertained; and the geographical situation of Egypt, as a point from which India could be assailed, is thus appreciated:—'Placed at the entrance of Asia, (says *M. Fourier*)

we

We could hence menace the rich possessions of our enemy, and carry confusion and war to the very sources of his opulence.' We are told that it was Bonaparte's design to have formed Egypt into a province of France; to have established an institution at Cairo for the advancement of science, and for the investigation of antiquities; to have resuscitated agriculture and the arts among the present inhabitants of Egypt; and to have made it, as of old, the *entrepôt* of commerce between the East Indies and Europe. In proportion as the hopes of the French were raised, what must have been their mortification at our triumphs over them at Aboukir, and on the Banks of the Nile; for those victories have destroyed all their political visions, though to literature, to science, and the arts, their expedition has still produced a richer harvest than any which for centuries has been reaped in that celebrated region. The monuments of Egypt were never investigated with so much taste, so exactly measured, nor so splendidly exhibited, as by the men of genius whose joint labours have effected this truly unique publication; and the French literati, producing this book to the English, may exclaim with some consolatory feeling of vanity, in the language of our great Bard:

"What though the *field* be lost, ALL is not lost."

We understand that two other deliveries, each more expensive than the first, will be necessary to complete this work. So great has been the entertainment which only a very hasty inspection of it has afforded us, that we much regret our inability to transfer any of that pleasure to our readers, and our being obliged to tantalize them with an article which will raise curiosity but cannot gratify it.

About the time of the arrival in England of this Imperial description of Egypt, a few illustrious individuals in this country were presented by the Emperor himself with his own portrait, in his robes, taken from a copper-plate which he keeps in his possession, and from which he suffers no impression to be thrown off without his express order and appropriation. We have seen one of these portraits, which represents a front view of Bonaparte; and as a specimen of the art of engraving, it does the highest honour to the French school. The Prince Regent, the Duke of York, and Sir Joseph Banks, are we understand, the chosen few who have received this mark of attention; and one other is at present on view at Colnaghi's print-shop in Cockspur Street. If Napoleon would allow of its more extensive circulation, it would form an appropriate frontispiece to this pictorial delineation of Egypt.

I N D E X

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N. B. To find any particular Book, or Pamphlet, see the Table of Contents, prefixed to the Volume.

A

ABSOLUTE case, obs. on, 88.

Acids, undecomposed, experiments on the action of potassium and sodium on them, 510.

Obs. on other Acids, 511. 512.

Aix, in Dauphiny, column erected there in honor of Bonaparte, 497.

Alcazar, in Seville, described, 22.

Allent, Col. on Reconnoitring, 278.

Alps, in the canton of Berne, a supposed excursion among, made the basis of a poetic romance, 463.

Alum, account of the preparation of, 187.

America, literature of, obs. on and specimens of, 418—423.

Aminta, of Tasso, the first chorus in, well translated into English verse, 11.

Ammonia, action of potassium and sodium on that substance, 510.

Analysis, *Analogy*, &c. memoir on, 140.

Anatomy, and the arts of design, on the connection between, 139.

Anchors, improvements on, 75.

Anderson, Dr., on plants at St. Vincent's, &c. 80, 81.

Animals, See *Zoology*.

Antimony, ores of, assay and analysis of, 188.

Architecture, obs. on modern, 138.

Arms, on the mode of arming infantry, antient and modern, 286.

Arsenic, mode of detecting in the stomach of dead persons, 190, 191.

APP. REV. VOL. LXV.

Arts, influence of, on morals, 139.

Athenæum of the Ladies, a French magazine, written by females, 491.

Autumn, See *Seasons*.

B

Baine, Mr., on the herring-fishery, 80.

Ball, Captain, his improved anchors, 75.

Bank-paper, See *Bullion*.

Banker, French, described by a satirical poet, 487.

Barlow, Mr., on a screw-wrench, 77.

Baydûru, a cast of Hindoos, account of, 264.

Beddoes, Dr., particulars of his life, writings, and death, 128—133.

Bell, Lieutenant, his invention for throwing a rope to stranded vessels, 74.

Berthier, Marshal, his supposed opinion of the war in Spain, 243. Character of, 241.

Bodies of persons in water, mode of raising, 77.

Boiler, improved, for tallow-chandlers, &c. 79.

Bolton, Capt., his improved jury-masts, 75.

Bonaparte, his alleged change of manners since his assumption of imperial dignity, 241. Measures and policy of, in the internal government of France, 308, &c. His promises to towns, &c. not performed, 312. His visits to the provinces, 385. His activity, his intrepidity as a

N a horseman

I N D E X.

- horseman, his sternness, and his personal appearance, 387 — 389. Obs. on the profligacy of his principles, 427. Inscription on a column erected in honour of, at Aix, 498. His magnificent publication of a *Description of Egypt*, 542. Fine portrait of, from a private plate, presented to a few distinguished individuals in this country, 544.
- Bond*, Mr., on the culture of hemp, 79.
- Boot-closers*, machine for, 70.
- Boswell*, Mr., on a new capstan, 69.
- Botanist*, French, late celebrated, anecdote of, 491.
- Boughton-Green Fair*, sports of, poetically described, 333.
- Bounty* armed ship, the mutiny on board of, in the South Seas, made the basis of a poem, 249.
- Boustrophedon* inscription, that marble obtained by Lord Elgin, 275.
- Bread-fruit*, the culture of, at St. Vincent's, not fostered, 80.
- Bream*, Mr., on an improved boiler, 79.
- Broad-cast sowing*, objections to that practice, 96.
- Brookbank*, Mr., on making slate-pencils, 78.
- Brown*, Dr., his poetic address to the shade of his father, 172.
- Bull fights* in Spain, obs. on, 358.
- Bullion*, paper-currency, and exchanges, tracts relative to, 99 — 101. 221. 319 — 325. 429 — 432.
- Burney*, Dr. Charles, a curious press-error in his Abridgment of Pearson on the Creed, 112.
- C
- Cabriolets*, Parisian, description of, 486.
- Calvinists*, their doctrine of *Grace* combated, 370.
- Camps*, obs. on the formation of, among the Greeks and the Romans, 283.
- Candy*, particulars relative to that kingdom, 46—51.
- Capstan*, model of a new one, 69.
- Carlisle*, Mr., on the connection between anatomy and the arts of design, 139.
- Cartwright*, Major, on the pike, or spear, 290.
- Casts*, right-hand and left-hand, among the Hindoos, obs. on that division, 263.
- Catholic* religion, in Ireland, supposed decline of, and case in point, 297.
- Cavallo*, Mr., on the Newtonian discoveries, 135. On purifying water, 139. On uniformity of character in nature, 141. On temperature, *ib.* On the reasoning faculty, *ib.*
- Ceylon*, obs. on the British government of, and mode of warfare with the Candians, 54—See also *Candy*.
- Chamberlayne*, Mr., his letter to Archbishop Nicolson, 200.
- Chardin*, Sir John, particulars relative to his life and travels, 538—541.
- Chastity*, not a virtue among the females in Spain, 23.
- Children*, numerous family of, an honour and a blessing in Tonquin, 518, 519.
- Chimneys*, invention for sweeping, 71.
- Cleall*, Mr., on beating out hemp-seeds, 79.
- Clegg*, Mr., on Gas-lights, 77.
- Clock-Escapement*, improved, 73.
- Coals*, machine for raising, 70.
- Coinage*, English, statement of, in different reigns, 431.
- Collier*, Mr., his new Ship-stove, 70.
- Colts-foot*, See *Tussilago*.
- Commons*, House of, list of majorities in, 438.
- Conscription*, in France, account of, and woeful picture of its effects, 389, 391. Their discipline, 394. Obs. on, 396.
- Contagion*, remarks on, 400.
- Cornells*,

I N D E X.

- Corneille*, remarks on his writings, by Mad. du Deffand, 34.
Cotton, obs. on the circumstances of the British cotton-planter, 441.
Crown, influence of, obs. on its alleged increase, 438.
Crystallization remarks on, 192.
Cumberland, Mr., on dramatic style, 135. On criticism, &c. 136. On the origin of the Fine Arts, 140.
Currency, See *Bullion*.
Curse of Kehama poetically denounced, 59.
Cutting machine, account of, 77.
- D
- Dabblers* in painting, essay on, 124.
Dancing, peculiarity of, in Tonquin, 524.
Daniel, Mr., on a life-preserver, 73.
Davis, Mr., his invention for sweeping chimnies, 71. On securing door-pannels, 72.
Davy, Prof., his chemical doctrines and experiments disputed by French chemists, 504—513. His opinion, that Potassium and Sodium are specific metals, admitted by them, 513.
Declensions, Latin and Greek, observations on, 84.
Deffand, Mad. du, some account of, and of her correspondence with Mr. Horace Walpole, 29.
Dekkan, constant insecurity of the inhabitants of, 235.
Dexia, cave of, in Theaki, supposed to be Homer's Grotto of the Nymphs, 378.
Diamond-mines, excursion to, 81.
Digamma, account of, 85.
D'Israeli, Mr. on letter-writing, 141.
Distillery, See *Spirits*.
Dizziness, personification of the Monarch of, 465. Picture of the effects of his power, 467.
Doors, mode of making them airtight, 76.
- Downes*, Bishop, his letter to Abp. Nicolson, 201.
Drowning, apparatus for the prevention of, 73.
- E
- Eblé*, General, anecdotes of, 158.
Edelcrantz, Chev. on Telegraphs, 75.
Education, See *Instruction*.
Egypt, reflections on the designs of the French relative to that country, in their invasion of it by Bonaparte; and sumptuous description of it published under his imperial sanction, 542—544.
Elbe, inhabitants of the banks of, delineated, 529.
Electricity, new hypothesis of, 99.
Elgin, Lord, his general views respecting his museum, 276.
Elmes, Mr., on monumental records, 140.
Englefield, Sir Henry, his remarks on coincidences between the Court of Alcinoüs, and that of Solyman, 379.
Errington, Mr., on the cure of herrings, 80.
Error of the Press, curious instance of, 112.
Escapements, for clocks and watches, new inventions for, 72, 73.
Este, the family of, patrons of Tasso, some account of, 4.
Exchanges, See *Bullion*.
Eye-Bath, contrivance for, 79.
- F
- Festival*, Christian, in the modern Greek church, account of, 377.
File for receipts, new invention for, 78.
Fishing, modes of practising, in Tonquin, 522.
Flaxman, Mr., on the progress of sculpture, 136.
Floating Light, account of, 70.

I N D E X.

Fortification, remarks on different systems of, 285. 288.

France, various particulars relative to its present internal state, 307—319. Project for the conquest of, by a British army, 418. Capital of picture of its manners and institutions in the 19th Century, 484—492.

——, South of, direction of a tour in 494.

Furniss, Mr., his air-tight hinges, 73.

G

Gardening, suggestions for a new systematic work on, 95.

Gas-lights, apparatus for, 77.

Gases, experiments on the existence of water in, 511.

Gilpin, Mr., on a machine for raising coals, 70.

Goat, long legged, a species in India, described, 263.

God, the justice of, defended from objections, 367.

Gooseberries, varieties and sizes of, 94.

Gospels, observations on the order of their composition, 204.

Grace, Calvinistic doctrine of, attacked, 370.

Granada, the approach to that city described, 26.

Grece, Mr., on the culture of hemp, 79.

Greece, observations on the state of antient monuments in, and recovery of several by Lord Elgin, 267.

——, modern, remarks on the mode of travelling in, 383.

Guard, national, of France, 394.

Gustavus Adolphus, the Great, of Sweden, fallen state of his descendants, 529.

—— IV. of Sweden, remarks on his character and abdication, 535.

H

Hackling, machine for hackling hemp, 78.

Hamburg, merchants of, characterized, 528.

Hardy, Mr., on improvements in Time-keepers, 73.

——, Major le, on Telegraphs, 75.

Heliotrope, systematic arrangement of the different species of, 470.

Hemp, on the culture of, 79.

From India, account of, 81. Remarks on the domestic cultivation of, and on a supply of from the East, 153.

——, See *Hackling*. See *Seeds*.

Herring-Fishery, memoirs on, 80.

Heyne, Dr., on Oriental Soda, 81. On Diamond mines, *ib*.

*Hindoo*s, religious fancies of, made the foundation of an English poem, 56.

——. See *Casts*. See *Mysoor*. See *Baydaru*.

——, their superstition, 266.

Hinges, air-tight, invention for, 73.

Hoare, Mr., his essay on *Dabblers* in painting, 134. On taste, 135.

On patronage of the arts, 140.

On the offices of painting, 141.

Homograph, invention of, 76.

Hope, Mr. T., on the arts of design, 126.

Hoppner, Mr., on satire, 135. On the beautiful, 136.

Horace, made to describe his Sabine Farm in English verse, 334.

Houses, mode of constructing, in Tonquin, 526.

Hume, Mr., his letter, written shortly before his death, to Mad. du Deffand, on the death of the Prince of Conti, 53.

Hyères, its plain, town, and gardens described, 502, 503.

Hypochondriasis and madness, remarks on, 9.

J

Jenner, Dr., on a classification of human intellect, 139.

Jerusalem, conquest of, an old Latin poem on that subject, supposed

I N D E X.

posed to have been Tasso's prototype, 7.
Imitation, in painting, obs. on, 134.
Inchbald, Mrs., on novel-writing, 139.
Influence, regal, See *Crown*.
Inquisition, not *defunct* in Spain, 360.
Insane persons, obs. on the number of, and on methods of cure, 25. See *Madness*.
Instruction public, in France, its present state, 315. 491.
Job, book of, critical obs. on various passages in, 146. 151.
Ireland, obs. on the distillery-laws of, 416, 417. See *Catholics*.
Ibaca, remarks on its identity with the modern Theaki, 373.
Jungum priests, in India, account of, 217.
Junot, General, anecdotes of, 158.
Jury-marts, improvement of, 75.
Justice, of God, defended, 367.
 ———, administration of, in France, 317.

K

Kepler, the astronomer, his monument, 530.
Khatmunda, the capital of Nepal, described, 344.
Kleber, General, memoirs and character of, 243.

L

Latin, obs. on the prevalence of that language for books in Germany, 531.
Leaf, fall of, physiologically investigated, 108.
Le Caen, Mr., his improved Tramp-plates, 70.
Legion of Honour, in France, anecdote relative to, 491.
Legitimate Son, a poem, 175.
Leonora, of Este, Princess, her regard for Tasso exempted from any impurity, 5.
Letter-writing, theory of, 141.
Life-preserver, account of, 73.

Life-boat, See *Wilson*.
Linch-pins, contrivance for preventing them from breaking or dropping, 77.
Linné, obs. on the precedence gained by his system over that of Tournefort, and specimens of a new French translation of his Sexual System, 468—472.
Lyceums, in France, plan of instruction in, 316.

M

Maclacklan, Mr., on East India products, 81.
Madness, original remarks on, 9.
Maintenon, Mad. de. remarks on her letters, by Mad. du Defand, 35.
Majorca, account of, 363, 364.
Malaga, cathedral of, described, 25. Various wines made at, 359.
Manby, Captain, his invention for preserving shipwrecked persons, &c. 74.
Man-trap, new invention of, 78.
Mups, of Greece, obs. on, 384.
Massena, General, anecdotes of, 158.
Mathematics, obs. on the progress of, in this country, 39.
Medicine, practice of, obs. on a reform in, 163.
Mendham, Mr., his new watch escapement, 72.
Military operations, on the basis of, 282.
Miller, Mr., on raising bodies out of water, 77.
Minerva, temple of, account of parts of it obtained by Lord Elgin, 271.
Money, definition of, and syllogism formed on, 322. Obs. on the theory of, 431.
Monserrat, description of, 362.
Mont de Piété, at Paris, account of, now become a government establishment, 488.
Morals, influence of the arts on, 139.

Murray,

Murray, Mr., his machine for hackling hemp, 78.

Mysoor, anecdotes of sovereigns of, from the Hindoo house. 229.

N

Nature, supposed progress of, in the formation of organized bodies, 481. Improper personification of that term, in such discussions, 482.

Navy, British, remarks on its superiority, as ascribed to native seamanship, 413. *note*.

Necessaries, public, established in Paris, 489.

Nepaul, various particulars respecting that kingdom, and its inhabitants, 337, 354.

Newton, Mr., his cutting-machine, 77.

Ney, General, anecdotes of, 160.

Nicolson, Abp, particulars of his life and literary correspondence, 196.

Nomenclature, of the new Pharmacopœia, strictures on, 180.

Northcote, Mr., on imitations, in painting, 134. On patronage, 135. On the limits of poetry and painting, 136. On imitating stage-effect, 139. His allegory, 141.

Novel-writing, obs. on, 139.

O

Opie, Mr., memoirs of, 135, 136. On composition in painting, 141.

Orange, in Dauphiny, account of the triumphal arch at, 495.

P

Painting, See *Hoare*, See *Northcote*, See *Opie*.

Palma, in Majorca, account of, 363.

Pannels, of doors, &c., invention for securing them from being cut open, 72.

Pappenburg, short account of, 530.

Paris, See *France*.

Parliaments, origin of in this country, and the expediency of their frequency maintained, 328.

—, See *Commons*.

Patronage, See *Hoare*, See *Northcote*.

Pawnbroking, at Paris, government-system of, 488.

Pepper, obs. on the culture of, 262.

Pike, or spear, on the use of, by infantry, 290.

Pile, Galvanic, researches and experiments on, 505.

Pisé walls, mode of constructing, 78.

Plants, from India, account of, 81.

Directions for the care of plants at sea, *ibid*.

Poetry, and painting, respective limits of, 136.

Policy, martial, of Great Britain, remarks on, in various branches, 403—415.

Poor, comparative expence of maintaining them in work-houses, and assisting them in their own dwellings, 456.

Population, of Tarragona, 361. Of Majorca, 363. Of Minorca, 364. Of France, remarks on, 395. Of the empire of Tonquin, 518.

Potassium, and sodium, obs. on the preparation and properties of, 507. 513.

Prayer, good remarks on, 368.

Prior, Mr., on a clock-escape-ment, 73.

Proselytism, of the Hindoos, arguments against attempts towards, 236.

Pye, Mr., on the influence of the arts on morals, 139.

R

Rail-roads, improvement or carriages on, 70.

Reconnoitring, essay on, 278.

Records,

I N D E X.

Records, monumental. See *Elme*.
Regnier, Gen., anecdotes of, 161.
Religion, in France, present state of, 314, 489.
Richardson Mr., on a machine for clearing stones off land, 76.
Rigaud, Mr., his paper in the *Artist*, 141.
Roberts, Mr., his improvement in ship-building, 75.
Roderick, the last Gothic King of Spain, his vision, in an antient vault, made the subject of a modern poem, 293.
Romans, antient, obs. on their camps, and on parts of their military discipline and warfare, 283, 314.
Ronda, particulars rel. to that city, 26.
Rope, invention for throwing to a ship in distress, 74.
Ross, Mr., on an eye-bath, 79.
Roxburgh, Dr., on Malay Hemp, &c., 81.
Rugen, island of, described, 532.

S

Salmon, Mr., his new man-trap, 78. On Pisé walls, *ibid*.
Saps, on the mode of constructing saps by engineers, 287.
Satire. See *Hoppner*.
Saxony, its superiority to other parts of Germany, in the state of its people, 531.
Screw-wrench, improvement on, 77.
Sculpture, on the progress of, in England, 136.
Seasons, comparison of with the stages of life, instanced in a picture of Autumn, 423.
Seeds, of hemp and flax, machine for beating them out, 79.
Seringapatam, palace of, described, 258.
Sherry, quantity of that wine made at Xeres, 21.
Ship-building, improvement in, 75.
Shipley, Mr., his floating light, 70.

Ships, in distress, or stranded, mode of throwing a rope to them from shore, 74.
Shoemakers, and boot-closers, machine for, 70.
Sicily, obs. on the state of British interests in that island, 408.
Sinclair, Sir John, on the mode of arming infantry, 286.
Slate-pencils, machine for making, 78.
Smart, Mr., his invention for sweeping chimnies, 71.
Soane, Mr., on architecture, 138.
Soda, mode of preparing in India, 81.
Sodium. See *Potassium*.
Sonnets, specimens of, 330—332.
Soult, Marshal, character of, 240.
Spain, the state of that country politically considered, 20. Obs. on the French ruler's progress in the conquest of, 428.
Species, among animals, remarks on the permanency of specific characters, 479.
Spencer, Mr. Knight, on an Anthropo-Telegraph, 76.
Spirits, serious obs. on the effects of the low duty on, in Ireland, 416—417.
Spratt, Lieut., on a Homograph, 76.
Stass, Mr., on a machine for boot-closers, 70.
Stones, machine for removing them from land, 76.
Stothard, Mr., remarks on his picture of Chaucer's pilgrims, 138.
Stove, for ships, improved, 70.
Strategics, proper meaning of that term, 425.
Sweden, particulars of its inhabitants, customs, climate, and provinces; and obs. on the late revolution in, 533—537. See *Gustavus*.
Swing, vertical, recommended for insane persons, 215.
Switzerland. See *Alps*.

Tad,

I N D E X.

T

- Tad*, Mr., on making doors airtight, 76.
Tarragona, account of, 361.
Tartar-emic, preparation of, 213.
Tasso, Torquato, particulars of his life and writings, 1—18. His memorial of himself, 6.
Telegraphs, papers on, 75, 76.
Thames, poetic invocation to, 210.
Theatres, London, remarks on, 141.
Time-keepers. See *Hardy*, See *Ward*.
Timea capitis, obs. on, 217.
Teppoo Sultaun, account of, 259.
Toast, odd one proposed by a Spanish lady, 361.
Tonquin, statistical particulars respecting that empire, 514—526.
Toulon, account of the arsenal at, 499. Damage there effected by the English, in 1793, 501.
Tussilago, the species of, systematically arranged, 471.
Twinnam, poetic invocation to, 311.

V

- Valencia*, valley of, described, 360.
Varty, Mr., his contrivance for linch-pins, 77.
Vases, antient, obs. on, 275.
Voltaire, letters to, from Mad. du Deffand, 34.

W

- Wake*, Abp., biographical notice of, 103.
Walcheren, obs. on our conquest and abandonment of, 407.
War. See *Policy*.
Ward, Mr., on a compensation pendulum, 73.
Warren, Mr., on teaching to write, 78.
Watch Escapement, account of an improved one, 72.
Water. See *Gases*.
Wellington, Lord, poetic compliments to, 295, 302.
West, Mr., his remarks on painting, 141. On the Elgin marbles, &c. 278.
Wilson, Mr. Christopher, on a life-boat, 69.
Wines. See *Malaga*. See *Xeres*.
Women, of Spain, not celebrated for chastity, 23. Manners of, 357, 358.
 ———, of Paris, remarks on, 490.
Wright, Mr., his new receipt for, 78.
Write, contrivance for teaching to write, 78.

X

- Xeres*, account of that city, 21.

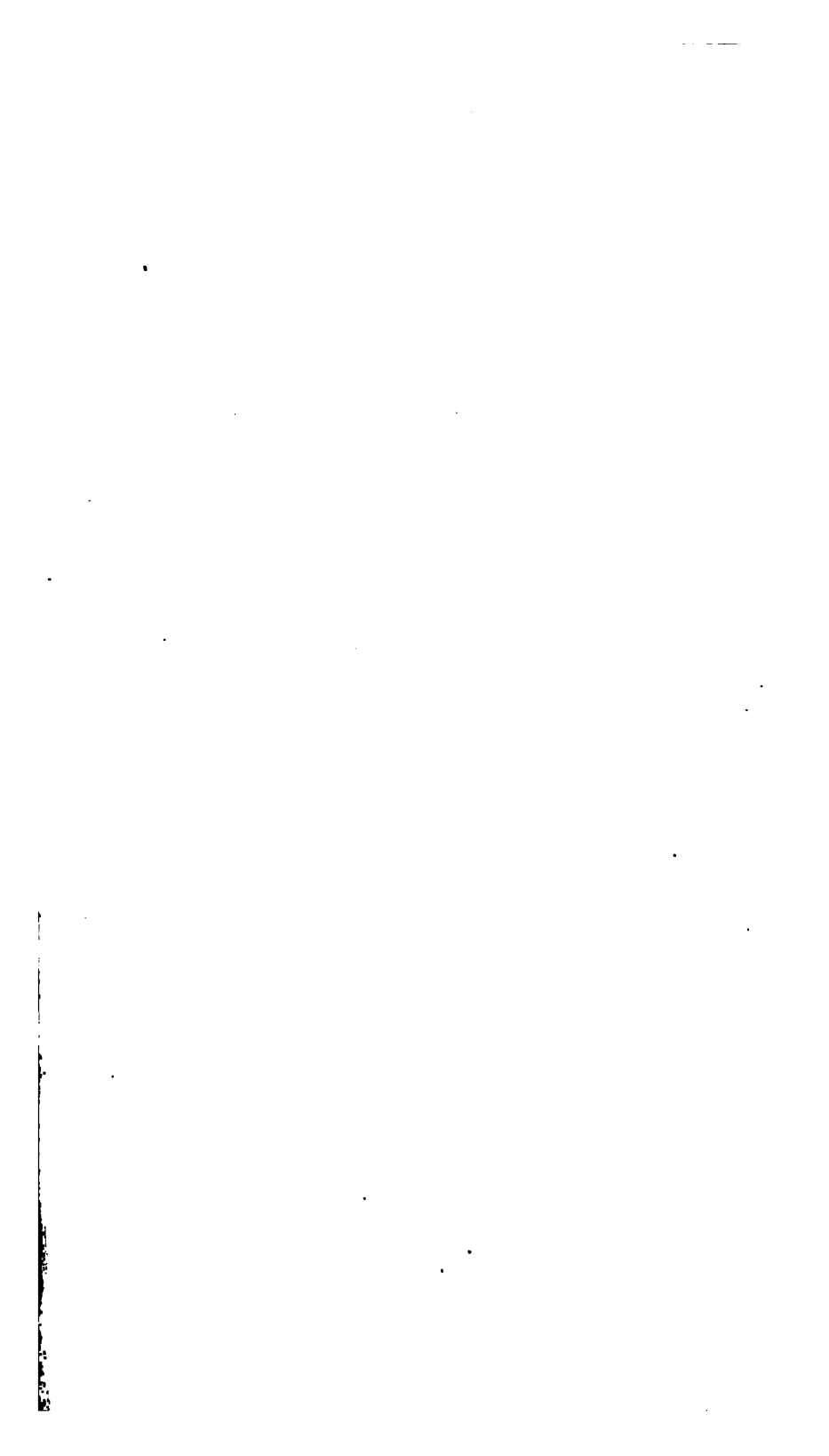
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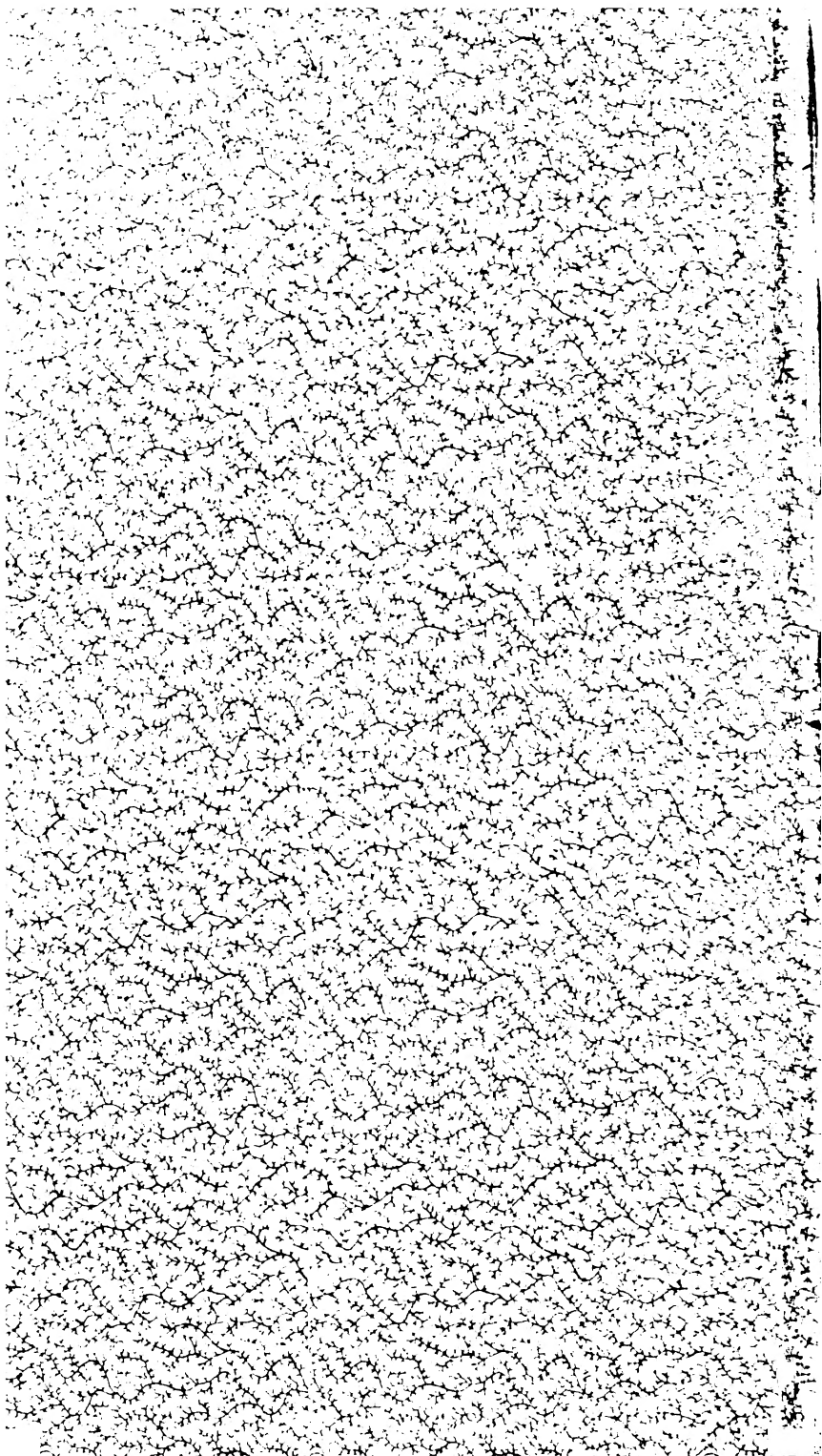
- Zoology*, speculations in the philosophy of, 473.

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